THE NEW REED AND KELLOGG

LESSONS IN ENGLISH

ARTHUR LEE

BOOK TWO

CHARLES E. MERRILL COMPANY

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From the Painting by Alma-Tadema

A Reading from Homer

THE NEW REED AND KELLOGG

LESSONS IN ENGLISH

BY

ARTHUR LEE

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CLINTON, MISSOURI

BASED ON THE TEXTS BY

ALONZO REED

AND

BRAINERD KELLOGG

BOOK TWO

CHARLES E. MERRILL COMPANY

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By Frances M. Reed and Brainerd Kellogg

PREFACE

THE vogue of the Reed and Kellogg GRADED LESSONS IN ENGLISH and HIGHER LESSONS IN ENGLISH, extending over more than a generation, is one of the remarkable facts in the history of American school texts. The continuing popularity of the series and its immense sales prove that the books have an amazing vitality and adaptability. Teachers and pupils pay them the high tribute of satisfaction and confidence.

With the rearrangement and enrichment of the elementary course in English, there came a time when many teachers felt that the essential soundness of the Reed and Kellogg series and its power of interesting and enlightening should be systematically adapted to present practices and needs. New methods and new programs of education required some eliminations and the additions of whatever of value has been established by the enthusiastic attention to English teaching in the last two decades. At the same time, it was obviously desirable to retain all those merits of the books which have helped tens of thousands of classes to a better grasp of our language.

The standing of "Reed and Kellogg" has been due in large measure to the scholarly thoroughness with which the series was made. To determine what good usage is respecting many points in debate by purists and grammarians, the authors went to the original source of linguistic authority, the writers of highest repute in recent generations. Fifty authors were selected, and 300 pages of each—15,000 pages

in all—were carefully read. The usage of these authors, minutely noted and recorded, formed the basis of the "Reed and Kellogg" judgments as to what good English is.

In a few particulars, usage has changed in recent years. Wherever this was the case, statements have been changed in the present book so as to accord with the best modern authority. In the treatment of composition, the series has been thoroughly revised and enlarged in accordance with the spirit and the method of a changed language curriculum. In grammar, the principal changes have been in the direction of simplification and abridgment.

It is in the teaching of composition that the greatest advances in elementary English instruction have been made in recent years. Consequently, some portions of the earlier "Reed and Kellogg" have been eliminated, and a great deal of new material has been added. The increasing use of literature, both prose and poetry, not only as models but as a means of stirring the imagination and freeing tongue and pen, is reflected in this revision. The use of pictures, the relation of expression work to life, the harmonizing of the book problems with the child's world, are here emphasized. It has not been forgotten, however, that every good text in this field must be in large measure a drill book. Much talking and much writing on subjects which occupy the pupil's mind—to which he gives attention in his other studies or in which he can easily be led to take an interest—have been provided for.

A noteworthy excellence of "Reed and Kellogg" has always been its clear and thorough exposition of the sentence. No pupil of average ability could faithfully work through the old Reed and Kellogg books without getting a grasp upon sentence structure which made him a clearer thinker and added largely to his power of expression. It was the undeniable gain in ability to think aright and to

embody the thought in felicitous discourse—the product of sentence analysis—that led James A. Garfield to make this statement:

"I have taught, more or less, almost every subject embraced in the ordinary school or college course, and the most fruitful discipline of all for young pupils I consider to be grammatical analysis."

Had President Garfield been trained in our present philosophy of education, he would probably have avoided the word *discipline;* but he need not have changed his conviction as to the value of a thorough understanding of sentence structure to those who are learning to talk and to write. The paramount excellence of the old books, the illumination of the sentence, has been studiously retained in the new.

A part of the success of "Reed and Kellogg" in elucidating sentence structure is due to its system of diagrams—a system which in its unrivalled clearness, simplicity, and convenience amounts to a stroke of genius. For some years a storm of criticism beat upon the sentence diagram, a storm raised not by those who taught grammar to children, but by mature scholars who had long passed the stage when they needed the assistance of such a device. With the refusal of teachers and pupils to be swerved from their adherence to this practical means of saving labor, and with the increasing emphasis upon graphical representation in education, there has been a strong recurrence to the use of the diagram. Only the abuse of diagraming led to whatever opposition arose against its use. Teachers should, of course, employ this aid with judgment. The diagram was never a vital part of "Reed and Kellogg," and it is not in this revision; it is only a help.

The terminology of the Joint Committee on Nomenclature of the National Education Association has been very largely used in these books. It has not seemed wise to introduce, all

at once, the new nomenclature in all of its details, for schools and teachers must grow into the new terminology after some points have been satisfactorily worked out by further study.

The revision has had the advantage of the coöperation of Dr. Brainerd Kellogg, one of the original authors. Dr. Kellogg, whose success and ripe experience in textbook-making give him a high place in American education, furnished a large collection of notes for the new series, and has worked with the reviser in the production of "The New Reed and Kellogg."

The composition lessons in PART TWO should be taught along with the grammar of PART ONE. The days of the school week may be apportioned between the two divisions of the subject as the teacher sees fit, or the lessons may be alternated by weeks. A Study Outline arranged to combine Parts One and Two may be found on page 313.

Acknowledgment of permission to use selections in this book is due to Houghton Mifflin Company for the extract from *Lincoln, Master of Men* by Alonzo Rothschild and for "Opportunity" by Edward Rowland Sill; to Charles Scribner's Sons for the selection from *Fisherman's Luck* by Henry van Dyke; to D. C. Heath and Company for the selection from *Education for Efficiency* by Eugene Davenport; to The Macmillan Company for the extract from *The Making of an American* by Jacob Riis; and to Doubleday, Page and Company for the letter from *Recollections and Letters of General Lee* by Captain R. E. Lee.

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GRAMMAR

PART ONE: GRAMMAR

THE SENTENCE

LESSON 1

PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

Whenever we talk or write, we express thoughts. When we say, "Water freezes," the words express to others the thought we have in mind. We call these words a **sentence.**

The first word, *water*, names what we are thinking and talking about. The second word, *freezes*, tells what we think about water—that it freezes. The first word is the **subject** of the sentence; the second word is the **predicate.**

Sentences differ in many ways; some are long and contain many words; but every sentence is the expression of a thought, and every sentence has a subject and a predicate.

A sentence is a group of words expressing a thought.

The subject of a sentence names that of which something is thought.

The predicate of a sentence tells what is thought about the subject.

EXERCISE 1

I. *Make sentences by expressing thoughts about the things that are here named.* The words given will then be subjects

and what you say about them will be predicates. The predicate may be only one word, or it may be two or more words.

1. Horses	4. Diamonds	7. Sailors
2. Stars	5. Robins	8. Banners
3. Lions	6. Frogs	9. Rain

II. *Name the subject and the predicate in each of these sentences:*

1. Leaves are falling.
2. Planets revolve.
3. Cornwallis surrendered.
4. Flags were flying.
5. Columbus was imprisoned.
6. Summer has gone.
7. Air may be weighed.
8. André was captured.
9. Treason should have been punished.
10. Louisiana was purchased.

LESSON 2

SENTENCES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO USE

Sentences are used in different ways. If I say, "The train is late," I make a statement.

If I inquire, "Is the train late?" I use the sentence to ask a question.

I may be annoyed because the train is late and say with feeling, "How late the train is!" This sentence is an exclamation.

If I say, "Wait till the train comes," I express a command and use an imperative sentence.

A declarative sentence makes a statement.

An interrogative sentence asks a question.

An exclamatory sentence expresses sudden thought or strong feeling.

An imperative sentence expresses a command or a request.

NOTE. Sentences that contain a negative word (as *not, never*) are sometimes described as *negative* sentences. All other sentences are *affirmative*.

Negative sentence: I am not going.

Affirmative sentence: Am I going? I may go.

Begin every sentence with a **capital** letter.

Place a **period** at the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence.

Place a **question mark** at the end of an interrogative sentence.

Place an **exclamation point** at the end of an exclamatory sentence.

EXERCISE 2

I. *Tell what kind of sentence each of these is:*

1. The sun that brief December day
   Rose cheerless over hills of gray.
2. I have given you streams to fish in.
3. Stand by the flag.
4. Who killed Cock Robin?
5. What is the capital of Japan?

6. Give me of your bark, O Birch Tree.
7. The judge rode slowly down the lane,
   Smoothing his horse's chestnut mane.
8. How short our happy days appear!
9. What is left when honor is lost?
10. What a piece of work is man!
11. What is man that Thou art mindful of him?
12. A friend should bear a friend's infirmities.

II. *Write five declarative, five interrogative, three imperative, and two exclamatory sentences.*

LESSON 3

NOUNS

When we consider the words we use, we see that many of them are names; as, desk, pencil, father, Mary, Mr. Baldwin, heat, industry. These we call **nouns.** You will find that every subject of a sentence is a noun, or some word or words used as a noun.

Some nouns name classes of things; as, boy, girl, country. These are called **common nouns.** Others are individual, or **proper,** names; as, James, Mary, America.

A noun is a word used as the name of anything.

A common noun is a name which belongs to all things of a class.

A proper noun is the individual name of a particular person, place, or thing.

Every proper noun begins with a **capital letter.**

EXERCISE 3

I. *Select the nouns in the following passage. Tell which are individual, or proper, names.*

Now, to tell the truth, from the very first mention of Long John in Squire Trelawney's letter, I had taken a fear in my mind that he might prove to be the very one-legged sailor whom I had watched for so long at the old Benbow. But one look at the man before me was enough. I had seen the captain and Black Dog and the blind man Pew, and I thought that I knew what a buccaneer was like—a very different creature, according to me, from this clean and pleasant-tempered landlord.

I plucked up courage at once, crossed the threshold, and walked right up to the man where he stood, propped on his crutch, talking to a customer.

"Mr. Silver, sir?" I asked, holding out the note.

ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON, from *Treasure Island*

II. *Write twenty common nouns. Ten proper nouns.*

LESSON 4

VERBS

You have learned that one large class of words consists of names of things. There is another class of words which are used to tell what things do or to express existence.

When we say, "Dogs bark," *bark* is not used to name anything; it tells what dogs do. It asserts action.

When we say, "God is," *is* simply expresses existence, or being.

In the sentence "Grandfather sleeps," *sleeps* tells the condition, or state, in which Grandfather is; that is, it expresses the state of being.

All the words that assert action, being, or state of being we call **verbs.**

A verb may consist of two, three, or four words; as, is singing, will be sung, might have been sung.

As verbs are the only words that assert, every predicate must contain a verb.

A verb is a word that asserts action, being, or state of being.

EXERCISE 4

I. *Select the verbs in these sentences:*

1. Come into the garden, Maud.
2. Where is my book?
3. The old man told his story.
4. I will write.
5. "Oh!" I cried, "stop him."
6. The man who was nearest the door leaped up and started in pursuit.
7. Home land and far land and half the world around,
   Old Glory hears the glad salute and ripples to the sound.
8. This work could have been finished in a day.
9. Silence never betrays you.
10. The sky is dark and the hills are white,
    As the storm-king speeds from the north to-night.

II. *Write ten sentences and underline the verbs.*

LESSON 5

PRONOUNS

It is often convenient to use a word in place of a noun. John, in speaking of himself, does not say, "John forgot John's book," but "I forgot my book." In addressing Mary, we say, "You forgot the book," not "Mary forgot the book."

I, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, and *they* are some of the words that are used instead of names, or nouns.

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun.

The pronoun I is written as a **capital** letter.

It is convenient to have a term that applies to both nouns and pronouns, and to other words that do the work of a noun. Such words are called **substantives.**

EXERCISE 5

I. *Select all the pronouns in Exercise 3.*

II. *Write twenty sentences containing pronouns and underline the pronouns.*

LESSON 6

MODIFIERS; ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

You have seen that a noun, or a pronoun, and a verb sometimes make a complete sentence; as, I walk, Planets revolve. More often such words are used as the foundation of a sentence, which is completed by adding other parts. "Owls are hooting" is a sentence.

We may also say, "The owls are hooting," or "Those owls are hooting," or "Those big, gray owls are hooting." The words *the, those, big, gray,* we call **modifiers** of the subject. *owls.*

A modifier is a word, or a group of words, joined to some part of a sentence to qualify or limit the meaning.

The subject with its modifiers is the complete subject.

The subject without its modifiers is the simple subject or the subject substantive.

The **analysis** of a sentence consists in separating it into its parts.

Model for Analysis. The cool October days have come.

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is *the cool October days.* The subject substantive is the noun *days.* The predicate is *have come. Days* is modified by *the, cool,* and *October.*

EXERCISE 6

Analyze the following sentences, according to the model above:

1. The cock is crowing.
2. The small birds twitter.
3. The cattle are grazing.
4. The snow has retreated.
5. Small clouds are sailing.
6. The ragged continental troops had advanced.
7. The searchlight flashed.
8. Radium was discovered.
9. The milk soured.

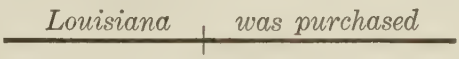
10. The mighty oak was uprooted.
11. Big bonfires were lighted.
12. The vivid lightning flashes.

LESSON 7

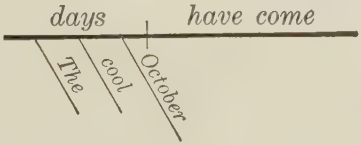
DIAGRAMS

Instead of writing out the analysis of a sentence, we may make a diagram. This saves us the labor of writing, and has the advantage of enabling us to see at a glance the relations of the different parts of the sentence. We draw a line and divide it in the middle, thus:

To the left of the dividing line we write the subject; and to the right of the dividing line, the predicate, thus:



When the subject has modifiers, we place them upon slanting lines drawn from the line upon which the subject is written. The sentence "The cool October days have come" is diagramed thus:



EXERCISE 7

According to the model given on page 23, you may diagram the sentences in Exercise 6.

LESSON 8

ADJECTIVES

The words added to the subject substantive to modify its meaning, like *the*, *cool*, and *October* in the sentence "The cool October days have come," are called **adjectives.**

Adjectives may be joined to substantives that are used otherwise than as subjects of sentences.

A separate class may be made of the adjectives *the*, *a*, and *an*. They are called **articles.**

An adjective is a word used to modify a substantive.

Parsing is describing the grammatical form of a word and telling its use in the sentence.

Model for Oral Parsing. The daily newspapers were distributed.

The and *daily* are adjectives because they modify the noun *newspapers; newspapers* is a noun because it is the name of something; *were distributed* is a verb because it asserts.

Model for Written Parsing

Nouns	*Pronouns*	*Adjectives*	*Verbs*
newspapers		The daily	were distributed

EXERCISE 8

I. *Analyze and diagram these sentences:*

1. The midnight signal was given.
2. Brave Paul Revere was riding.
3. The farmers were awakened.
4. The British Regulars fled.
5. Both positions can be defended.
6. All such discussion should be avoided.
7. I alone have escaped.
8. That dilapidated old wooden building has fallen.
9. The great Lincoln Highway was built.
10. Many marvelous engineering feats have been performed.

II. *Parse all the words in the above sentences.*

LESSON 9

PREDICATE MODIFIERS

"The ship sails gracefully." Here *gracefully* tells the manner of sailing.

"The ship sails immediately." *Immediately* tells the time of sailing.

"The ship sails homeward." What word tells the direction of sailing?

The words *gracefully*, *immediately*, and *homeward* are modifiers of the predicate. In the first sentence, *sails gracefully* is the **complete predicate.** In each of the three sentences, *sails* is the **simple predicate** or the **predicate verb.**

The predicate with its modifiers is called the complete predicate.

The predicate without its modifiers is called the predicate verb.

ANALYSIS. The parrots were talking noisily.

This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is *the parrots;* the complete predicate is *were talking noisily.* The subject substantive is the noun *parrots;* the predicate verb is *were talking.* The subject substantive is modified by the adjective *the;* the predicate verb is modified by *noisily.*

WRITTEN PARSING. Parse the nouns, adjectives, and verbs in this sentence, using the form given in Lesson 8.

DIAGRAMING. Write *noisily* on a slanting line drawn from the line upon which the predicate is written.

EXERCISE 9

Analyze and diagram the following sentences. Parse the nouns, adjectives, and verbs in the even-numbered sentences.

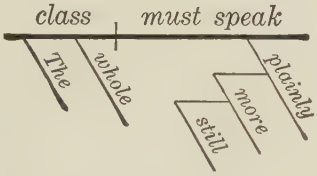
1. A great victory was finally won.
2. These questions may be settled peaceably.
3. The tired child slept soundly.
4. Times will surely change.
5. A blue butterfly fluttered lightly down.
6. The stern, rigid Puritans often worshiped there.
7. Bright-eyed daisies peep up everywhere.
8. The precious morning hours should not be idly wasted.
9. You will undoubtedly be cordially welcomed.
10. A furious wintry gale has been blowing.

LESSON 10

OTHER MODIFIERS

Modifiers are themselves often modified, as in the following sentence, where *more* modifies *plainly*, and *still* modifies *more*.

DIAGRAM. The whole class must speak still more plainly.



The modifier *more* is written on a line parallel with *plainly*, with a short connecting line. *Still*, in a similar way, is written on a line parallel with *more*, which it modifies.

ANALYSIS. This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is *the whole class;* the complete predicate is *must speak still more plainly.* The subject substantive is the noun *class;* the predicate verb is *must speak. Class* is modified by the adjectives *the* and *whole. Must speak* is modified by the words *still more plainly. Plainly* is modified by *more,* and *more* is modified by *still.*

EXERCISE 10

Analyze or diagram the following sentences:

1. The graceful aëroplane mounted still higher.
2. Our touring car has traveled very far.

3. The boy scouts are marching daily.

4. Perhaps he will return.

5. We laughed very heartily.

6. A torn jacket is soon mended.

7. Few men have ever fought so stubbornly.

8. The visitor will soon be here.

9. An absolutely innocent man was very cruelly persecuted.

10. A very enjoyable entertainment was provided.

11. A somewhat dangerous pass had been reached quite unexpectedly.

12. Why will people exaggerate so much?

LESSON 11

ADVERBS

You have learned that the predicate may be qualified or limited by modifiers, and that one modifier may limit another. Words used to limit the predicate of a sentence and those used to limit modifiers belong to one class, or one part of speech. They are called **adverbs.**

"She spoke too harshly." What word tells how she spoke? What word tells how harshly? What do we call the words *too* and *harshly?*

"Too much time has been wasted." What word modifies *much,* by telling how much? What part of speech is *much?* Since *too* modifies *much,* which is

itself a modifier, *too* is an adverb. Adverbs, then, may modify adjectives.

Why is *too* in the first sentence an adverb? Why is *too* in the second sentence an adverb? Why is *harshly* an adverb?

An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

Oral Parsing. She spoke too harshly.

She is a pronoun because it is used instead of a noun. *Spoke* is a verb because it asserts. *Too* is an adverb because it modifies an adverb. *Harshly* is an adverb because it modifies the verb *spoke*.

Written Parsing. Use the model in Lesson 8, adding a column for adverbs.

EXERCISE 11

Analyze or diagram the following sentences. Parse the words.

1. My bicycle tire was punctured yesterday.
2. The kite soared very high.
3. The water gushed forth.
4. The ninepins were knocked down.
5. You should listen more attentively.
6. That class was especially interested to-day.
7. An especially interesting visitor called.
8. An extravagantly high price was paid.
9. That lady dresses extravagantly.
10. Softly the snow was falling.

LESSON 12

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

EXERCISE 12

Analyze or diagram the following sentences. Parse the words.

1. You must diagram neatly.
2. The ball teams were called together.
3. The teams are evenly matched.
4. The reckless adventurer has returned.
5. John swims very rapidly.
6. White, fleecy clouds are floating above.
7. Those severe laws have been repealed.
8. A republican government was established.
9. The holiday never comes too soon.
10. An unusually large crop had just been harvested.
11. A season so extremely warm had never before been known.
12. So brave a deed cannot be too warmly commended.

Can be commended is the verb, and *not* is an adverb.

To the Teacher. After the pupils understand the method of diagraming, the sentences in the exercises may be diagramed or not, at the discretion of the teacher.

LESSON 13

A PHRASE INTRODUCED BY A PREPOSITION

You have seen that several words may be grouped together and used as one modifier. In the examples

given, the principal word is joined directly to the subject substantive or to the predicate verb and is modified by another word. In this lesson, groups of words are used as modifiers; but these words are not united with one another, or with the word which the group modifies, as in the preceding lessons.

"De Soto marched into Florida." What words tell where De Soto marched? What is the principal word of the group which tells where he marched?

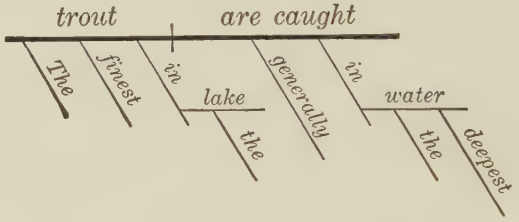
Groups of related words, like *into Florida*, are called **phrases.** They are diagramed in this way:

A phrase modifying the subject of a sentence is equivalent to an adjective and frequently may be changed into one. It is, therefore, called an **adjective phrase.** "The colors of the sunset are fading." What word may be used for the phrase *of the sunset?*

A phrase modifying the predicate verb is equivalent to an adverb and frequently may be changed into one. Such a phrase is called an **adverbial phrase.** "We shall go to that place." What word may be used for the phrase *to that place?*

A phrase is a group of words denoting related ideas but not expressing a thought.

DIAGRAM. The finest trout in the lake are generally caught in the deepest water.



Notice that the diagram of the phrase is made up of a slanting line for the introductory and connecting word, and a horizontal line for the principal word. Under the principal word are placed the slanting lines for its modifiers. Here and elsewhere, *all modifiers are joined to the principal words by slanting lines.*

ANALYSIS. This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is *the finest trout in the lake;* the complete predicate is *are generally caught in the deepest water.* The subject substantive is the noun *trout;* the predicate verb is *are caught. Trout* is modified by the adjectives *the* and *finest,* and by the phrase *in the lake. In* introduces the phrase, and *lake* is the principal word; *the* modifies *lake. Are caught* is modified by the adverb *generally* and by the phrase *in the deepest water. In* introduces the phrase, and *water* is the principal word; the adjectives *the* and *deepest* modify *water.*

EXERCISE 13

I. 1. *Change the words in these phrases to adjectives or adverbs:*

The nations *of America* should be friendly.
We walked *toward home.*
The cities *of the West* grew rapidly.
You must diagram *with care.*

2. *To each of the following words add one or more words to complete a phrase. Use each phrase in a sentence.*

to	by	at	in
from	with	on	over

II. *Analyze the following sentences. Parse the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.*

1. Parkman traveled among the Western Indians.
2. The history of his trip tells about their interesting customs.
3. Large herds of buffaloes once roamed on the great plains.
4. The Indians on horseback raced on the vast prairies.
5. The little brook ran swiftly under the bridge.
6. The gloom of winter settled down on everything.
7. A gentle breeze blows from the south.
8. The top of the mountain is covered with snow.
9. The second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia.
10. The breezy morning died into silent noon.
11. Between the two mountains lies a fertile valley.
12. The wet grass sparkled in the sunlight.

LESSON 14

PREPOSITIONS

"The boy jumped into the brook." Notice that *into* is placed before a noun, and with it forms a phrase. It belongs to a class of words called **prepositions.** These

words introduce phrases. The preposition shows the relation of one thing to another, as expressed by the principal word of the phrase (*brook*) and the word which the phrase modifies (*jumped*). The preposition serves also to connect these words.

In the sentence "The squirrel ran up a tree," what word shows the relation between the act of running and the tree?

Repeat the above sentence about the squirrel, and in each repetition substitute for *up* one of these prepositions: over, through, to, under, from, round, behind, down, into.

A phrase introduced by a preposition is called a **prepositional phrase.**

The substantive following a preposition is called the **object** of the preposition.

A preposition is a word that introduces a phrase and shows the relation of its object to the word modified by the phrase.

WRITTEN PARSING. The subject of a sentence is generally placed before the predicate.

Nouns	*Pron.*	*Adjectives*	*Verbs*	*Adverbs*	*Prepositions*
subject		The	is placed	generally	of
sentence		a			before
predicate		the			

ORAL PARSING. *The* is an adjective because it modifies the noun *subject; subject* is a noun because it is the name of something; *of* is a preposition because it shows the relation between *subject* and *sentence; a* is an adjective because it modifies the noun *sentence; sentence* is a noun because it is the name of something. *Is placed* is a verb because it asserts; *generally* is an adverb because it modifies the verb *is placed. Before* is a preposition because it shows the relation between *is placed* and *predicate; the* is an adjective because it modifies the noun *predicate; predicate* is a noun because it is the name of something.

EXERCISE 14

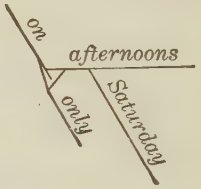
According to the models above, parse the words in these sentences:

1. The frugal snail retreats to his small domicile.
2. A smiling landscape lay before us.
3. Columbus was born at Genoa.
4. The mouth of the Mississippi was discovered by La Salle.
5. All names of the Deity should begin with capital letters.
6. Air is composed chiefly of two invisible gases.
7. The ground squirrel gayly chirps by his den.
8. The first word of every sentence should begin with a capital letter.
9. The Gulf Stream can be traced along the shores of the United States by the blueness of the water.

In the first phrase, *shores* is modified by another phrase, *of the United States.* Similarly, the principal word of the phrase *by the blueness* is modified by another phrase.

10. In 1607 Hudson sailed within six hundred miles of the North Pole.

The date *1607* may be treated here as a noun, and *six hundred* as one adjective.



11. The library is open only on Saturday afternoons.

The adverb *only* modifies the whole phrase.

12. The Suspension Bridge is stretched across the Niagara River just below the falls.

Just modifies the preposition *below*.

13. In Mother Goose, the cow jumps clear over the moon.

14. The long-lost explorers have been brought back from the Arctic regions to Canada.

LESSON 15

COMPOUND SUBJECT AND COMPOUND PREDICATE

"Frank, Helen, and Elizabeth played tennis." The three words *Frank, Helen,* and *Elizabeth* have the same predicate—the same act being asserted of the boy and the two girls. *Frank, Helen,* and *Elizabeth* are connected by *and*—another *and* being understood between the first two names. Connected subjects having the same predicate form a **compound subject.**

"We rode, tramped, and swam almost every day last summer." The three predicates, *rode, tramped,* and *swam,* have the same subject—the three acts being asserted of the same group of people. Connected predicates having the same subject form a **compound predicate.**

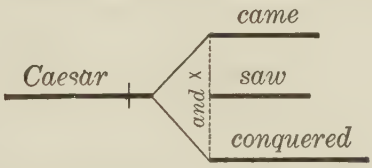
A sentence may have both a compound subject and a compound predicate; as,

Mary and *Elizabeth lived* and *reigned* in England.

Two or more connected subjects having the same predicate form a compound subject.

Two or more connected predicates having the same subject form a compound predicate.

DIAGRAM. Cæsar came, saw, and conquered.



The short line following the subject represents the entire predicate, and is supposed to be continued in the horizontal lines that follow, each of which represents a part of the compound predicate. These horizontal lines are united by a dotted line, which stands for the connecting words. The × denotes that an *and* is understood.

In a similar way, a compound subject is diagramed on horizontal lines connected with the main line. For an illustration, see the diagram of Sentence 8, Exercise 15.

ORAL ANALYSIS. This is a declarative sentence. *Cæsar* is the subject; *came*, *saw*, and *conquered* form the compound predicate, *and* connects *saw* and *conquered*.

EXERCISE 15

Analyze these sentences:

1. The Rhine and the Rhone rise in Switzerland.

2. Pride, poverty, and fashion cannot live in the same house.

3. Glass, china, and reputation are easily cracked and are never well mended.

4. Time and tide wait for no man.

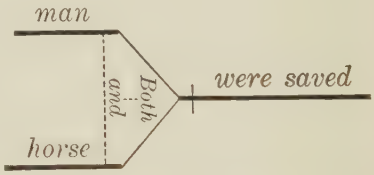
5. Arizona and New Mexico were admitted to the Union in 1912.

6. The optic nerve passes from the brain to the back of the eyeball and there spreads out.

7. All forms of the lever and all the principal kinds of hinges are found in the human body.

8. Both man and horse were saved.

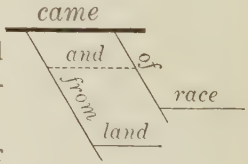
The word *both* is used to strengthen the real connective *and*. In a similar way, *either* strengthens *or* in the *either-or* combination, and *neither* strengthens *nor*.



9. The strange rumbling sound neither increased nor diminished.

10. Either John or Henry must go.

11. The Norman kings of England came from a foreign land and of a foreign race.



12. The mental, moral, and muscular powers are improved by use.

For the method of diagraming sentence 12, see the diagram on page 37. The slanting lines of the modifiers *mental*, *moral*, and *muscular* are connected by dotted lines, upon which are placed the *and* and the symbol ×.

13. Through the Suez Canal, scores of ships, British and German and French, pass yearly to India.

14. A kind of gunpowder was used at an early period in China and in other parts of Asia.

LESSON 16

CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS

Such words as *and* and *or*, used to connect words and phrases, belong to a class of words called **conjunctions.**

They connect **modifiers**; as,

A daring *but* foolish feat was performed.

They connect **phrases**; as,

We shall travel by railway *and* by automobile.

They connect **clauses** that is, expressions which, standing alone, would be sentences; as,

Men may come *and* men may go.

A conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, or clauses.

The **interjection** is the eighth and last part of speech. Interjections are mere exclamations, and are without grammatical relation to other words in the sentence. You will recognize them in the words expressing sudden or strong feeling in these sentences:

Hurrah! the field is won.
Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro.
Alas! what have they done?

An interjection is a word used to express strong or sudden feeling.

WRITTEN PARSING. Hurrah! that cool and fearless fireman has rushed into the house and up to the burning stairs.

Nouns	*Pron.*	*Adjec.*	*Adv.*	*Verbs*	*Prep.*	*Conj.*	*Int.*
fireman		that			into	and	Hurrah
house		cool		has rushed	up to	and	
stairs		fearless					
		the					
		the					
		burning					

In a diagram, the interjection is written on a short line placed above the rest of the diagram and unconnected with it.

EXERCISE 16

Analyze these sentences and parse each word:

1. Ah! I am surprised at the news.
2. Pshaw! you have been fooled.
3. Alas! all hope is fled.
4. Ah! happy men, women, and children cheer joyfully at the news.
5. Tush! tush! 't will not appear.
6. The small but dauntless band of explorers were finally rescued from the ice-floe.
7. Lightning and electricity were identified by Franklin.
8. The Revolutionary War began at Lexington and ended at Yorktown.

9. This courageous reformer fought against ignorance and prejudice, greed and oppression, treachery and falsehood.

10. Few honest, industrious men fail of success in life.

11. Why! Where did you come from?

12. The frozen but valuable territory of Alaska was purchased in 1867 by the United States.

13. The wealth of gold, fish, and coal, in Alaska was soon discovered.

14. Down the rivers, o'er the prairies,
Came the warriors of the nations.

15. I wind about, and in and out.

LESSON 17

COMPLEMENTS; THE DIRECT OBJECT

In saying "Washington captured," we do not fully express the act performed by Washington. If we add a noun and say, "Washington captured Cornwallis," we complete the predicate by naming that which receives the act.

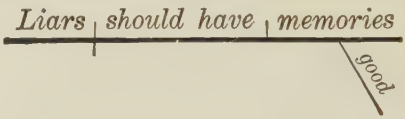
Whatever fills out, or completes, is a **complement.** *Cornwallis,* therefore, is the complement of the predicate. As *Cornwallis* completes the predicate by naming the object directly acted upon, we call it the **object complement** or the **direct object.**

Connected objects that complete the same verb form a **compound object complement;** as,

Washington captured *Cornwallis* and his *army.*

The direct object completes the predicate and names that which receives the act.

DIAGRAM. Liars should have good memories.

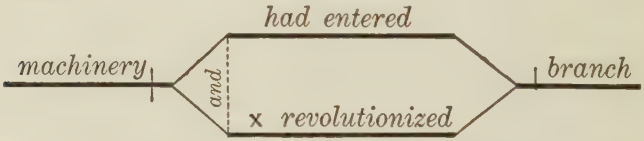


ORAL ANALYSIS. *Memories* is the direct object; *memories* is modified by the adjective *good.*

EXERCISE 17

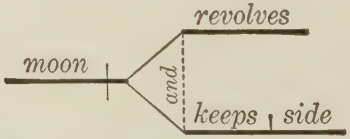
Analyze these sentences:

1. Morse invented the telegraph.
2. Phrases form a large portion of almost every sentence.
3. Benjamin Franklin invented the lightning-rod.
4. By the beginning of the twentieth century, machinery had entered and revolutionized nearly every branch of manufacturing.



The × denotes that a word is understood; in this case, *had.*

5. The moon revolves, and keeps the same side toward us.



Notice that the perpendicular line before the direct object touches, but does not cut, the main line.

6. Through vales of grass and meads of flowers,
Our plows their furrows made.

7. The history of the Trojan War rests on the authority of Homer, and forms the subject of the noblest poem of antiquity.

8. James and John study and recite grammar and arithmetic.

LESSON 18

PREDICATE ADJECTIVE AND PREDICATE NOUN

A complete predicate expresses something that is asserted. In the sentence "Soldiers march," *march* is a complete predicate, for it expresses what is asserted.

In the phrase *soldiers marching*, the word *marching* expresses an act, but it asserts nothing. In the sentence "Steel is hard," *is* asserts, but it does not express what is asserted. We do not wish to assert merely that steel is, or exists; we wish to assert of steel the quality described by the adjective *hard*. As *hard* expresses a quality, or attribute, of the subject, we may call it an **attribute complement.**

"The maple leaves become." The verb *become* does not make a complete predicate; it does not fully express the idea to be asserted. The idea may be completely expressed by adding the adjective *red*, denoting the quality by which we wish to describe the leaves. "The maple leaves become red." Here the adjective *red* is the attribute complement.

An adjective used as attribute complement is called a **predicate adjective.**

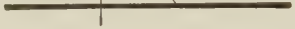
"Lizards are reptiles." The noun *reptiles* completes the predicate by naming the class to which *lizards* belong.

"Rolfe's wife was Pocahontas." *Pocahontas* completes the predicate by presenting a second idea, which *was* asserts to be identical with the subject.

A noun used as attribute complement is called a **predicate noun.**

The attribute complement of a sentence completes the predicate and belongs to the subject.

DIAGRAM. Glass is brittle.



The line standing for the attribute complement is—like the line for an object—a continuation of the predicate line; but notice that the line separating the incomplete predicate from the complement slants toward the subject, to show that the complement is an attribute of the subject.

EXERCISE 18

Analyze these sentences:

1. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.
2. The valley of the Mississippi is very fertile.
3. Necessity is the mother of invention.
4. The mountains are grand, tranquil, and lovable.
5. Commerce and industry are the best mines of a nation.
6. The ear is the ever open gateway of the soul.
7. The verb is the life of the sentence.
8. Snowflakes and hailstones are frozen raindrops.
9. A little learning is a dangerous thing.

10. The highest outcome of culture is simplicity.

11. The one serviceable, safe, certain quality in every study and in every pursuit is the quality of attention.

12. The north wind is full of courage, and puts the stamina of endurance into a man.

13. The west wind is hopeful, and has promise and adventure in it.

14. The east wind is peevishness and mental rheumatism and grumbling, and curls one up in the chimney-corner.

15. The south wind is full of longing and unrest and suggestions of luxurious ease.

LESSON 19

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

EXERCISE 19

Analyze these sentences and parse the words:

1. The "Boston News-Letter" was the first newspaper in the United States.

2. Bunyan wrote his famous book in prison.

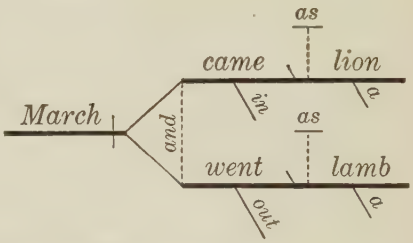
3. The first vice president of the United States was John Adams.

4. Roger Williams was the founder of Rhode Island.

5. Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood.

6. The first wireless message was sent across the English Channel in 1899.

7. March came in as a lion and went out as a lamb.



Lion, like *lamb*, is a predicate noun. The diagram shows that *as* simply introduces *lion* and *lamb*, — *as* being a conjunction. But some authorities classify *as* as a preposition, thus making *as a lion* a prepositional phrase modifying *came*, and *as a lamb* a prepositional phrase modifying *went*.

8. Velvet feels smooth, and looks rich and glossy.

9. He came a foe and returned a friend.

10. The bark of the cork tree is used as stoppers for bottles.

11. With time and patience, the mulberry becomes satin.

12. This book is presented to you as a token of esteem and gratitude.

13. I am present.

14. I am here.

The function, or work, of an adverb sometimes seems to fade into that of an adjective and is not easily distinguished from it. *Here*, like an adjective, seems to complete *am*, and like an adverb, to modify it. From their form and usual function, *here* in sentence 14 is classed as an adverb, and *present* in sentence 13 is classed as an adjective.

LESSON 20

OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS

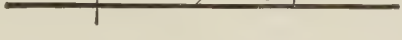
"He made the wall white." Here *made* does not fully express the act performed upon the wall. We do not mean to say, "He made the white wall," but "He

made-white (whitened) the wall." *White* helps *made* to express the act, and at the same time it denotes the quality attributed to the wall as the result of the act.

"They made David king." Here *made* does not fully express the act. They did not make David, but *made-king* (crowned) David. *King* helps *made* to express the act, and at the same time denotes the office to which the act raised David.

A word that, like the adjective *white* or the noun *king*, helps to complete the predicate and belongs to the object is called an **objective complement.** It differs from an attribute complement by belonging, not to the subject, but to the object.

DIAGRAM. They made David king.



EXERCISE 20

Analyze or diagram these sentences:

1. Some one has called the eye the window of the soul.
2. Longfellow once called the stars the forget-me-nots of the angels.
3. Pharaoh made Joseph governor in Egypt.
4. We should consider time as a sacred trust.

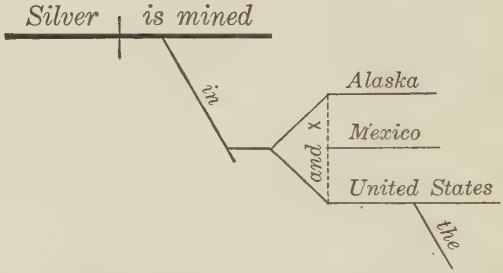
As is used simply to introduce an objective complement.

5. Men called Washington "The Father of his Country."
6. The Indian warriors painted their faces many colors.
7. One touch of nature makes the whole world kin.
8. They named the state New York from the Duke of York.
9. Custom renders the feelings blunt and callous.

LESSON 21

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

DIAGRAM. Silver is mined in Alaska, Mexico, and the United States.



In this diagram the line representing the principal words of the phrase is continued as three separate lines. This shows that the phrase is compound. *Alaska*, *Mexico*, and *United States* are all introduced by the same preposition *in*, and have the same relation to *is mined*.

In the above sentence the preposition *in* has a *compound object*.

EXERCISE 21

Analyze these sentences and parse the words:

1. The mills of England use much cotton from India.
2. The aëroplane brought mail from France, Switzerland, and Italy.
3. Most mountain ranges run parallel with the coast.
4. Now swiftly glides the bonny boat.
5. The Panama Canal shortens the water route from New York to Manila.
6. The life of the bee is short but busy.

7. The queen bee lays eggs in cells of three different sizes.

8. Umbrellas were introduced into England from China.

9. The first permanent English settlement in America was made at Jamestown in 1607.

10. The summits of the Alps are covered with perpetual snow.

11. All the kings of Egypt are called, in Scripture, Pharaoh.

12. The bamboo furnishes, to the natives of China, shade, food, houses, weapons, and clothing.

Notice that in sentence 8 *were introduced* is modified by the two phrases *into England* and *from China.* The whole phrase *into England from China* is a **compound phrase.**

Notice that in sentence 12 *natives,* the principal word of the phrase *to the natives,* is modified by another phrase, *of China.* The whole phrase *to the natives of China* is a **complex phrase.**

LESSON 22

REVIEW

EXERCISE 22

Make sentences which contain the following:

1. A compound subject.
2. A compound predicate.
3. An attribute complement.
4. A direct object.
5. An objective complement.
6. A predicate noun.

7. A predicate adjective.
8. A noun used as objective complement.
9. An adjective used as objective complement.
10. A phrase modifying the subject.
11. A phrase modifying the predicate.
12. A preposition with a compound object.
13. An adverb modifying a phrase. (See Exercise 14, sentence 11.)

LESSON 23

PARTICIPLES

A quality may be assumed as belonging to a thing (as, *brittle glass*), or that it may be asserted of it (as, Glass *is brittle*). An action, also, may be assumed as belonging to something (as, Peter *turning*), or it may be asserted (as, Peter *turned*).

In the expression "Peter, *turning*, said," which word assumes an action, and which asserts an action? Think of other examples of an action asserted and an action assumed; as, horses gallop, horses galloping; corn grows, corn growing.

This form of the verb which merely *assumes* the act, being, or state is called a **participle.**

In the expression "Peter, turning, said," the word *turning* modifies the noun *Peter*. It therefore has the function of an adjective.

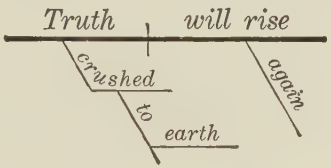
A participle is a form of the verb which has also the nature of an adjective; it expresses the action or being as assumed.

A phrase introduced by a participle is called a **participial phrase.**

When the words *growing* and *galloping* are placed before the nouns (as, growing corn, galloping horses), they simply tell the kind of corn and the kind of horses, and are therefore *adjectives.* They are not classed as verbs.

When *the* or some other adjective is placed before these words, and a preposition after them (as, *the growing* of the corn, *the galloping* of the horses), they are simply the names of actions, and are therefore *nouns.* They are not classed as verbs.

Diagram. Truth, crushed to earth, will rise again.



In this diagram, the line standing for the principal word of the participial phrase is broken; one part slants, and the other is horizontal. This shows that the participle *crushed* is used like an adjective to modify *truth,* and yet retains the nature of a verb, expressing an action received by *truth.*

Oral Analysis. This is a declarative sentence. The complete subject is *truth crushed to earth;* the subject substantive is *truth.* The complete predicate is *will rise again;* the predicate verb is *will rise. Truth* is modified by the phrase *crushed to earth.* The participle *crushed* is modified by the prepositional phrase *to earth; to* is the preposition,

and *earth* is its object. *Will rise* is modified by the adverb *again.*

PARSING. *Crushed* is the form of the verb called participle. The action expressed by it is merely assumed.

EXERCISE 23

Analyze and parse:

1. A cobweb spread over a blossom protects it from the chill of the night.

2. Your mother, beholding you, will shed tears of joy.

3. The general, riding to the front, led the attack.

4. The balloon, shooting swiftly into the clouds, was soon lost to sight.

5. Wealth acquired dishonestly will prove a curse.

6. The sun, rising, dispelled the mists.

7. The giant, perceiving Hercules, roared in a voice resembling thunder.

8. The thief, being detected, surrendered to the officer.

9. They boarded the vessel lying in the harbor.

10. The territory claimed by the Dutch was called New Netherlands.

11. Washington, having crossed the Delaware, attacked the Hessians stationed at Trenton.

12. Pocahontas was married to a young Englishman named John Rolfe.

Note that the participle, like the predicate verb, may consist of two or more words, as in sentence 8 above.

The participle, like the adjective, may modify a noun used as complement, as in sentence 9 above.

LESSON 24

FUNCTIONS OF PARTICIPLES

EXERCISE 24

Analyze the numbered sentences and parse the words:

The participle may be used as an **attribute complement.**

1. The boys came racing along.

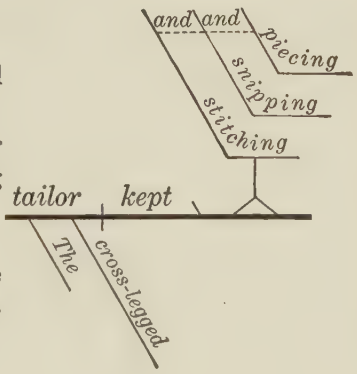
Racing here completes the predicate verb *came*, and belongs to the subject *boys*. The boys are represented as performing the act of coming and the accompanying act of racing.

2. The city lies sleeping.

3. They stood terrified.

4. The student sat buried in thought.

5. The cross-legged tailor kept stitching and snipping and piecing.

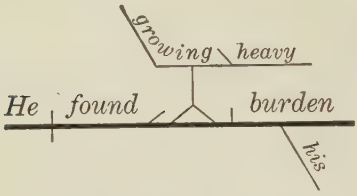


The participle may be used as an **objective complement.**

6. He kept me waiting.

Waiting completes *kept* and relates to the object *me*. *Kept-waiting* expresses the complete act performed upon *me*. He *kept-waiting me=He detained me.*

7. He found his burden growing heavy.



The diagram representing the phrase *growing heavy* is drawn above the main line, on which it rests by means of a support. All that stands on this support is the objective complement. Notice that the little mark before the support slants toward the direct object. The adjective *heavy* completes *growing* and belongs to *burden*, the object of *found*.

8. He owned himself defeated.

9. No one ever saw fat men heading a riot or herding together in turbulent mobs.

The participle may be used in an independent or **absolute phrase**; that is, a phrase consisting of a substantive used independently with a participle.

10. The bridge at Ashtabula giving way, the train fell into the river.

The diagram of the absolute phrase stands by itself.

11. Talking of exercise, you have heard, of course, of Dickens's "constitutionals."

12. Breakfast finished, they started for the woods.

Being is understood, making the absolute phrase, *Breakfast being finished.*

LESSON 25

INFINITIVES

There is another form of the verb which, like the participle, cannot be the predicate of a sentence, for it

does not assert; as, He comes *to visit* us; *To lie* is a disgrace. As this form of the verb expresses the action or being in a general way, without limiting it directly to a subject, it is called an **infinitive,** which means without limit.

An infinitive may be used in several ways.

"I have a duty *to perform.*" What does the infinitive modify? What is its function?

"He wishes *to speak.*" What does the infinitive modify? What is its function?

"*To lie* is base." What is base? "He tried *to sing.*" What did he try? *To lie* is a subject, and *to sing* is an object.

The infinitive is used as an **adjective,** an **abverb,** and a **noun.**

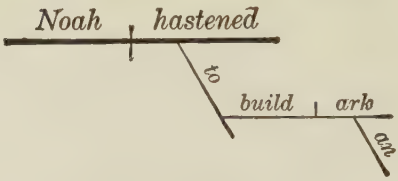
Infinitives may be completed by objects and complements; as, I tried *to cross the stormy lake.* The phrase introduced by the infinitive is called an **infinitive phrase.**

NOTE. In the sentence "I tried *to cross the stormy lake,*" the infinitive phrase, being used as a noun, is called a *substantive phrase.*

The infinitive is a form of the verb which names the action or being in a general way, without making an assertion.

Do not place an adverb or any other word after *to* of the infinitive. It is better to say, "I try *to learn* the lesson *thoroughly*"; *not* "I try to thoroughly learn the lesson." This incorrect form is sometimes called the split infinitive.

DIAGRAM. Noah hastened to build an ark.



ANALYSIS. *Hastened* is modified by the infinitive ***to build,*** having *ark* as its object; *an* modifies *ark.*

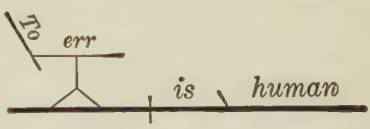
PARSING. *To build* is an infinitive; it modifies the verb *hastened.*

EXERCISE 25

I. *Make twelve sentences, each containing an infinitive.*

II. *Analyze and parse:*

1. I come not here to talk.
2. I hope to find it.
3. Books are spectacles to read nature.
4. Dr. Franklin was sent to France to seek aid for the colonies.
5. To err is human.



The diagram indicates that *to* merely introduces the word *err.*

This phrase subject cannot be written on the subject line because two lines are needed to express it properly. It is placed, therefore, above the subject line, upon which it rests by means of a support.

A phrase used as a complement is diagramed in a similar way and rests on the complement line.

6. The hands refuse to labor.
7. To be silent is the best answer to calumny.
8. The Puritans desired to obtain religious freedom.

9. The Romans, having conquered the world, were unable to conquer themselves.

10. Columbus sailed from Spain to discover a new route to India.

11. Bismarck, attempting to unite the German States, worked hard and brilliantly.

LESSON 26

FUNCTIONS OF INFINITIVES

EXERCISE 26

Analyze and parse:

The infinitive may be used as an **adjective** modifier.

1. Every individual has a place to fill in this world.

2. Every one should acquire the power to write a good letter.

3. Once to every man and nation comes the moment to decide.

The infinitive may be used as an **adverbial** modifier.

4. We will strive to please you.

5. Lincoln never turned from his course to gain favor.

6. This trait in Lincoln helped to make him great.

7. Wounds made by words are hard to heal.

The infinitive here modifies the adjective *hard*. *To heal=to be healed.*

8. The representative Yankee, selling his farm, wanders

away to seek new lands, to clear new cornfields, to build another shingle palace, and again to sell off and wander.

9. These apples are not ripe enough to eat.

The infinitive here modifies the adverb *enough*. *To eat=to be eaten.*

The infinitive may be used as **subject** or as **attribute complement.**

10. To be simple is to be great.

To, in each of these phrases, shows no relation—it serves merely to introduce. The complements *simple* and *great* are adjectives used abstractly, having no noun to modify.

11. To bear our fate is to conquer it.

12. To climb steep hills requires slow pace at first.

13. The noblest vengeance is to forgive.

14. He seemed to be innocent.

The infinitive phrase here has the function of an adjective. *To be innocent=innocent.*

15. Suddenly the distant aëroplane appeared to shoot downward.

The infinitive may be used as the **direct object.**

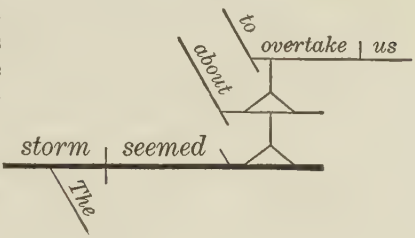
16. We should learn to govern ourselves.

17. No one can sincerely try to help another without helping himself.

The infinitive may be used after a preposition as the **principal term of a phrase.**

18. The storm seemed about to overtake us.

The preposition *about* introduces the phrase used as attribute complement. The principal term is the infinitive phrase *to overtake us.*



19. The reapers were now about to bind the grain in sheaves.

20. No way remains but to go on.

But is here a preposition.

LESSON 27

FUNCTIONS OF INFINITIVES; INFINITIVE CLAUSES

In general, an infinitive, although a form of the verb, has no subject; but there is a special case where it may have one; as, I believe him to be qualified.

Him to be qualified is the object of *believe. Him* is regarded as the subject of the infinitive *to be.* Such a construction as *him to be qualified* is called an **infinitive clause,** because it has a subject and a predicate.

Instead of using the term infinitive clause, some authorities would say that the infinitive phrase *to be qualified* is the objective complement and *him* the direct object of *believe.*

Notice that *him,* not *he,* is used as the subject of an infinitive.

An infinitive clause may be used as the object of the preposition *for.* The entire clause, introduced by *for,*

may be the subject of the verb, an attribute complement, a modifier, or the object of a preposition.

EXAMPLES. No course remained but *for the general to surrender.* (*Object of the preposition* but)

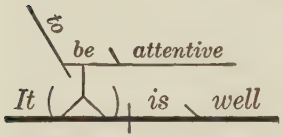
For me to tell you that would be unfair. (*Subject*)

EXERCISE 27

Analyze these sentences:

The infinitive may be used as an **explanatory modifier** or **appositive.**

1. It is well to be attentive.



The infinitive phrase *to be attentive* explains the subject *it.* Read the sentence without *it,* and you will see the real nature of the phrase.

The use of *it* as a substitute for the real subject is a common idiom[1] of our language. It allows the real subject to follow the verb. The word *it,* used in this way, is called an **expletive,** which means a word added to fill a vacancy. *There* is an expletive in the sentence "There is a high wind to-day."

2. It is necessary to know something of a subject before writing about it.

3. It is natural to man to indulge in the illusions of hope.

The infinitive may be used **independently.**

In the diagram, the independent element must stand by itself.

4. Every object has several faces, so to speak.

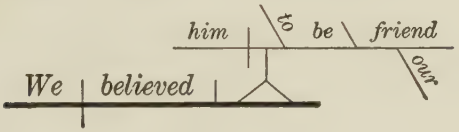
[1] Expressions which are peculiar to any language we call its **idioms.** The English language has a great many idioms, or idiomatic expressions. Such expressions cannot be translated word for word into another language, and many of them cannot be satisfactorily analyzed.

EXAMPLES. It is they. We had better go. How do you do?

5. To be brief, the Indian tribes were finally driven across the Mississippi.

The infinitive clause may be used as **direct object.**

6. We believed him to be our friend.



7. He made me wait.

Wait is an infinitive without *to.*

The verbs *bid, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need,* and *see* are followed by the infinitive without *to.*

8. He declared the accusation to be false.

9. He commanded the bridge to be lowered.

10. I saw the leaves stir.

The infinitive clause may be the **object of the preposition** *for.*

11. For man to forgive an injury is noble.

Diagram *for* like *about* in sentence 18, page 59 (but resting on the subject line), and the infinitive clause as in sentence 6 above.

12. It is hard for an empty bag to stand upright.

The infinitive clause is an appositive of *it.*

13. My plan is for you to visit us.

The infinitive clause is an attribute complement.

LESSON 28

REVIEW OF PARTICIPLES AND INFINITIVES

EXERCISE 28

Make sentences giving examples of the following:

1. A participle.

2. A participle used as attribute complement.
3. A participle used as objective complement.
4. A noun and a participle used absolutely, or independently.
5. An infinitive.
6. An infinitive used as subject of a verb.
7. An infinitive used as adjective modifier.
8. An infinitive used as adverbial modifier.
9. An infinitive used as attribute complement.
10. An infinitive used as direct object.
11. An infinitive used as object of a preposition.
12. An infinitive used as appositive modifier.
13. An infinitive used independently.
14. An infinitive clause used as direct object.
15. An infinitive clause used as object of *for*.

LESSON 29

GERUNDS

The **gerund**, or **verbal noun**, is a form of the verb ending in *ing*, which has also the nature of a noun.

EXAMPLES. You will find difficulty in *solving* this problem.
Reading good books is profitable.
Just *being* happy is good work and true.

When the word denoting the action no longer retains any of its *verbal* nature, it is a mere noun.

EXAMPLES. *Walking* and *riding* are healthful exercises.
In Paris he studied *painting*.
The *cackling* of geese saved Rome.
Give your brains a *racking*.

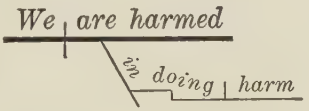
EXERCISE 29

Analyze the numbered sentences and parse the words in them:

The gerund may be used as the **principal word in a prepositional phrase.**

1. We are harmed in doing harm.

The line representing the gerund is broken; the first part represents the gerund as a noun and the other as a verb.



ANALYSIS. *Are harmed* is modified by the phrase *in doing harm; in* is a preposition and *doing harm* is its object. *Harm* is the object of the gerund *doing.*

2. Portions of the brain may be cut off without producing any pain.

3. Next to being a great poet is the power of understanding one.

4. Success generally depends on acting prudently, steadily, and vigorously.

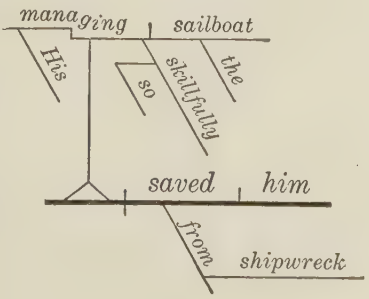
5. You cannot fully sympathize with suffering without having suffered.

Suffering here is a noun.

The gerund may be the principal word in a phrase used as **subject** or as **object.**

6. His managing the sailboat so skillfully saved him from shipwreck.

The diagram of the subject phrase is drawn above the subject line. All that rests on the subject line is regarded as the subject.



7. We should avoid injuring the feelings of others.

8. Hunting the Arctic bear is an exciting and dangerous sport.

9. Catching the dog was not an easy matter.

10. Repairing steeples is a dangerous profession.

The form of the verb ending in *ing* may be a mere noun.

11. The crowing of the rooster announced the dawn.

12. There was a rustling that seemed like a bustling of merry crowds.

13. Swimming and skating are my favorite sports.

14. All the little boys and girls,
With rosy cheeks and flaxen curls,
Tripping and skipping, ran merrily after
The wonderful music with shouting and laughter.

In sentence 14, what words ending in *ing* are nouns, and what words are not?

LESSON 30

NOUNS AS MODIFIERS; APPOSITIVES

In the sentence "The *robin's eggs* are blue," what word names the things owned or possessed? What word names the owner or possessor?

The noun *robin's* is here used as a modifier. You see that it is the word *robin* with an apostrophe (') and the letter s added to denote possession.

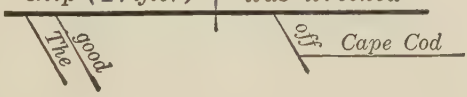
In the sentence "Longfellow, the *poet,* is loved by the children," the noun *poet* modifies the subject *Longfellow,* by explaining what Longfellow is meant.

Both words name the same person. The word *poet* is **in apposition** with *Longfellow;* it is called an **appositive.**

A word in apposition with another word explains it by referring to the same thing.

An appositive is usually set off from the rest of the sentence by the **comma.**

DIAGRAM. The good ship *Trifler* was wrecked off Cape Cod.



Trifler is written on the subject line because *Trifler* and *ship* both name the same thing, but *Trifler* is inclosed within marks of parenthesis to show that *ship* is the proper subject.

ANALYSIS. *Ship* is modified by the article *the* and the adjective *good,* and by the noun *Trifler* in apposition with *ship.*

EXERCISE 30

Analyze these sentences:

1. The South Pole was discovered by a Norwegian explorer, Amundsen.
2. The planet Jupiter has nine moons.
3. Peter's wife's mother lay sick of a fever.
4. An ostrich outruns an Arab's horse.
5. Mary, the unfortunate queen of Scots, was imprisoned by her cousin, Elizabeth.
6. Milton, the great English poet, became blind.

7. David swore eternal friendship with Jonathan, Saul's son.

8. Alexander's horse, Bucephalus, is one of the famous horses in history.

9. Joseph, Jacob's favorite son, was sold by his brethren to the Ishmaelites.

10. Alexander the Great was educated under the celebrated philosopher, Aristotle.

Alexander the Great is treated as one name.

11. Friends tie their purses with a spider's thread.

12. Robin Hood lived and hunted in Sherwood, a famous forest of Old England.

13. His fate, alas! was deplorable.

14. Love rules his kingdom without a sword.

LESSON 31

WORDS AND PHRASES USED INDEPENDENTLY

A sentence sometimes contains words and phrases which have no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence.

1. "Good name in man or woman, dear my lord,
Is the immediate jewel of their souls."

Dear my lord serves only to arrest attention, and is independent by **address.**

2. "Clever dog! he found his way home across a whole county." *Clever dog* is independent by **exclamation.**

3. "Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me." *Rod* and *staff* simply call attention to the objects before

anything is said of them and are independent by **pleonasm** — a construction that is out of place in ordinary speech.

The word *pleonasm* means more than enough. In grammar, it indicates that more words are used than are needed to express the thought.

4. "His master being absent, the business was neglected." *His master being absent* logically modifies the verb *was neglected*, by assigning the cause, but the phrase has no connective expressed or understood, and is therefore independent. This is called the **absolute phrase.**

An absolute phrase consists of a substantive used independently with a modifying participle.

5. "His conduct, generally speaking, was honorable." *Speaking* is a participle without connection, and with the adverb *generally* forms an **independent phrase.**

"To confess the truth, I was wrong." The infinitive phrase is independent.

6. The **adverbs** *well*, *now*, *why*, *there* are sometimes independent.

EXAMPLES. *Well*, that is finished at last.
Now, isn't that a good story?
Why, it is already noon.
There are pitch-pine Yankees and white-pine Yankees.

7. **Interjections** are without grammatical connection, and hence are independent.

8. Whatever is inclosed within marks of **parenthesis** is independent of the rest of the sentence; as,

I staked my fame (and I had fame), my heart, my hope, my soul, upon this cast.

EXERCISE 31

Analyze these sentences:

1. The most beautiful moths, children, were once but caterpillars.

Children is independent by address. *But=only*, and is an adjective modifying *caterpillars*.

2. There are one-story intellects, two-story intellects, and three-story intellects with skylights.

There is used idiomatically to throw the subject after the verb, the idea of place having faded out of the word. The word *there* used merely to introduce the sentence is an *expletive*. To express place, another *there* may follow the verb; as, *There* is gold *there*.

3. Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro.

4. Hope lost, all is lost.

5. The smith, a mighty man is he.

6. Why, this is not revenge.

7. Well, this is the forest of Arden.

8. Now, there is at Jerusalem, by the sheep market, a pool.

9. To tell the truth, we never thought of stopping.

10. Gentlemen of the jury, a man's dog stands by him in prosperity and in poverty, in sickness and in health.

11. Properly speaking, there can be no change in our affairs.

LESSON 32

NOUNS AS ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS

"I gave her a rose." Here we have a construction that is sometimes called a *double object*. *Rose*, naming the thing acted upon, is called the **direct object**; and *her*, naming the person toward whom the act is directed, is called the **indirect object.**

These indirect objects, which generally denote the person to or for whom something is done, are, in fact, equivalent to adverbial phrase modifiers. If we change the order of the words, a preposition must be supplied; as,

I gave *her* a *rose;* I gave a *rose to her.*
I bought *her* a *rose;* I bought a *rose for her.*
He asked *me* a *question;* He asked a *question of me.*

When the indirect object precedes the direct object, no preposition is expressed or understood.

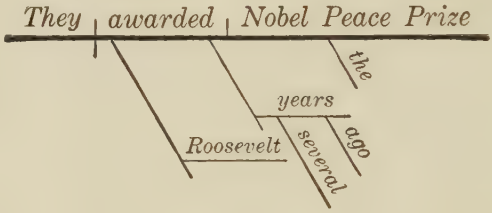
Teach, tell, send, promise, permit, and *lend* are examples of verbs that take indirect objects.

Besides these indirect objects, nouns denoting measure, quantity, weight, time, value, distance, or direction, are often used adverbially, being equivalent to phrase modifiers.

Examples. We rode thirty *miles* an *hour.*
It weighs one *pound.*
It is worth a *dollar* a *yard.*
They drove *home* that *way.*
The gate is ten *feet* six *inches* high.

The idiom of the language does not often allow the use of a preposition before nouns denoting measure, direction, etc. In analysis, you need not supply one.

Diagram. They awarded Roosevelt the Nobel Peace Prize several years ago.



Oral Analysis. *Roosevelt* and *years* are nouns used adverbially, modifying the predicate verb *awarded*.

EXERCISE 32

Analyze these sentences:

1. We pay the President of the United States $75,000 a year.

2. He sent his daughter home that way.

3. Give me neither poverty nor riches.

4. We went to New Haven the day of the races.

5. I gave him a dollar a bushel for his wheat, and ten cents a pound for his sugar.

6. Serpents cast their skin once a year.

7. Fourscore and seven years ago, our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation.

8. On the fatal field of Zutphen, September 22, 1586, his attendants brought the wounded Sir Philip Sidney a cup of cold water.

9. He magnanimously gave a dying soldier the water.

10. The frog lives several weeks as a fish, and breathes by means of gills.

11. Aristotle taught Alexander the Great philosophy.

12. Puff-balls have grown six inches in diameter in a single night.

LESSON 33

REVIEW

EXERCISE 33

Write sentences containing

1. A participle.
2. A gerund.
3. A noun derived from a verb and ending in *ing*.
4. A gerund used as the object of a preposition.
5. A gerund used as subject.
6. A noun showing possession used as adjective modifier.
7. A noun modifying another noun by apposition.
8. A noun independent by address.
9. A participial phrase used independently.
10. An infinitive phrase used independently.
11. *Now* used independently.
12. *Now* used as an adverb.
13. *There* used independently.
14. *There* used as an adverb.
15. A noun used as indirect object.
16. An absolute phrase.

LESSON 34

COMPLEX SENTENCES

The sentences given for analysis in the preceding lessons contain each but one subject and one predicate. They are called **simple sentences.**

"A wealthy man can do much good." You can expand the adjective *wealthy* into a phrase, and say, "A man *of wealth* can do much good." You can also expand it into an expression that asserts, and say, "A man *who is wealthy* can do much good." The two parts of the sentence, *who is wealthy* and *a man can do much good,* containing each a subject and a predicate, we call **clauses.**

The clause *who is wealthy,* which is used like an adjective, we call a **subordinate clause.** The clause *a man can do much good,* which makes good sense by itself, we call the **principal clause.**

The whole sentence, composed of a principal and a subordinate clause, we call a **complex sentence.**

Clauses that modify nouns or pronouns are called **adjective clauses.**

A clause is a part of a sentence containing a subject and its predicate.

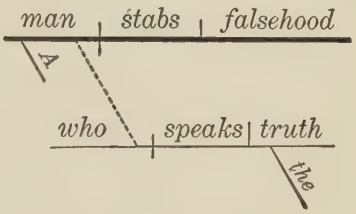
A subordinate clause is one used as an adjective, an adverb, or a noun.

A principal clause is one that is not dependent on another clause.

A simple sentence is one that contains only one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound.

A complex sentence is one composed of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

Diagram. A man who speaks the truth stabs falsehood.



The line standing for the subject and predicate of the principal clause is heavier than that of the subordinate clause. This pictures to you the relative importance of the two clauses.

The pronoun *who* is written on the subject line of the subordinate clause. But this word performs the function of a conjunction also, and this function is expressed in the diagram by a dotted line.

As all modifiers are joined by slanting lines to the words they modify, we have indicated in this diagram that *who speaks the truth* is a modifier of *man*.

Analysis. This is a complex sentence because it consists of a principal and a subordinate clause. *A man stabs falsehood* is the principal clause; *who speaks the truth* is the subordinate clause. *A man who speaks the truth* is the complete subject of the sentence; the subject substantive is *man*. *Man* is modified by the adjective *a* and by the adjective clause *who speaks the truth*. *Stabs falsehood* is the predicate of the sentence. *Stabs* is the verb. *Falsehood* is its direct object. *Who* is the subject of the subordinate clause; *speaks the truth* is the predicate; *speaks* is the verb, and *truth* is its direct object. *Truth* is modified by the adjective *the*.

EXERCISE 34

Analyze and parse:

1. He that runs may read.
2. God helps them that help themselves.
3. Henry Hudson discovered the river which bears his name.
4. That country is richest which nourishes the greatest number of happy human beings.
5. The meridians are those lines that extend from pole to pole.
6. He who will not be ruled by the rudder must be ruled by the rock.
7. An aëroplane that has only one plane is called a monoplane.
8. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
9. The winter sports which the Norwegian most enjoys are skiing and tobogganing.
10. The ski that is used by the Norwegian is a long, narrow piece of wood, curved at one end.
11. Our best friends are they who tell us of our faults and help us to mend them.

LESSON 35

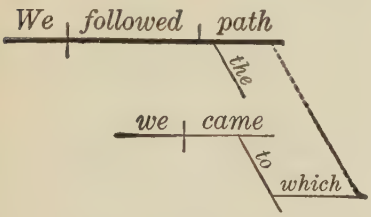
COMPLEX SENTENCES; ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

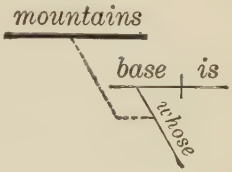
EXERCISE 35

Analyze and parse:

1. We followed the path to which we came.

2. Islands are the tops of mountains whose bases are in the bed of the ocean.





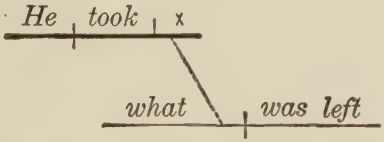
3. It was the same book to which I referred.

4. Attention is the stuff that memory is made of.

5. He did not know whom he could trust.

The adjective clause modifies *him* understood, to which *whom* refers. Supply *him*.

6. He took what was left.



There are two ways of explaining the clause *what was left*. *What* is equivalent to *that which*. Substituting *that which* for *what*, we have *that* as the object of *took*, modified by the adjective clause, *which was left*. The diagram illustrates this construction.

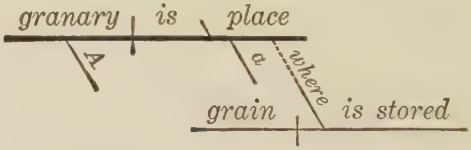
We may, however, regard the clause *what was left* as the object of *took*. To diagram this construction, we represent the clause *what was left* by a line that rests, by means of a support, on the object line.

7. Whatever is begun in anger ends in shame.

8. What men he had were true.

Analyze as if arranged *men what* (*that* or *whom*) *he had were true*. Or *what men he had* may be taken as a clause, subject of *were*.

9. A granary is a place where grain is stored.



10. This is the house where Mark Twain was born.

11. The lion sprang from where he had crouched.

Supply *the place* before *where.*

12. Youth is the time when the seeds of character are sown.

13. Do you know the reason why we should not say *ain't?*

LESSON 36

COMPLEX SENTENCES; ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

A clause that does the work of an adverb is an **adverbial clause.**

EXAMPLES. He arrived *when the clock struck twelve.*
He stood *where I am.*
This exercise is as profitable *as it is pleasant.*
I will buy the coat *if he will wear it.*

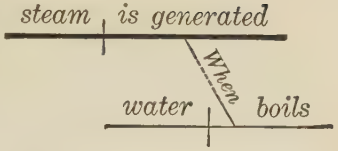
EXERCISE 36

Analyze these sentences:

The adverbial clause may express **time.**

1. When water boils, steam is generated.

When modifies both *is generated* and *boils*, denoting that the two acts take place at the same time. It also connects *water boils*, as an adverbial modifier, with *is generated*.



The function of *when* may be better understood by expanding it into two phrases, thus: Steam is generated *at the time at which* water boils. *At the time* modifies *is generated*, *at which* modifies *boils*, and *which* connects.

The line representing *when* is made up of three parts to picture these three functions.

2. While there is life, there's hope.

3. Water expands when it freezes.

4. The diver puts on a complicated diving suit before he goes down into the water.

5. Many a year is in its grave
Since I crossed this restless wave.

6. The canoe reached the shelter of a cove, just as the first stormy gust hit the lake.

In a diagram of this sentence, the line representing *as* joins the two verbs and is made up of three parts. See the diagram of sentence 1. *Just* modifies *as*.

The adverbial clause may express **place.**

7. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.

8. The Red Cross may be found wherever the tide of battle rages.

9. The wind bloweth where it listeth.

The adverbial clause may express **degree** or **result.**

10. Washington was as good as he was great.

The adverbial clause *as he was great* modifies the first *as*, which is an adverb modifying *good*. The first *as*, modified by the adverbial

clause, answers the question, "Good to what extent or degree?" The second *as* modifies *great* and has the function of a conjunction, as well as of an adverb.

Transposing, and expanding *as . . . as* into two phrases, we have, Washington was good *in the degree in which* he was great.

11. The wiser he grew, the humbler he became.

The words *the . . . the* are similar in function to *as . . . as;* He became humbler *in that degree in which* he became wiser. *The* is an adverb here. The first *the* is equivalent to *by how much;* the second *the* is equivalent to *by so much* and modifies *humbler.*

12. Wisdom is better than rubies.

Better=good beyond the degree, and *than=in which.* The sentence=*Wisdom is good beyond the degree in which rubies are good. Are* and *good* are omitted. Frequently words are omitted after *than* and *as. Than* modifies *good* (understood) and connects the clause expressing degree with *better.*

13. To be right is better than to be President.

To be right is better (good in a greater degree) than to be President (would be good).

14. It was so cold that the mercury froze.

The degree of the cold is here shown by the effect it produced. The adverb *so,* modified by the adverbial clause *that the mercury froze,* answers the question, "Cold to what degree?" The sentence =It was cold *to that degree in which* the mercury froze. *That,* as you see, modifies *froze* and connects the clauses.

15. It was so cold as to freeze the mercury.

It was so cold as to freeze the mercury (would indicate or require).

16. Dying for a principle is a higher degree of virtue than scolding for it.

17. Laziness travels so slowly that poverty soon overtakes him.

18. To preach is easier than to practice.

19. The oftener he visits us, the better we like him.

LESSON 37

COMPLEX SENTENCES; ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

EXERCISE 37

Analyze these sentences:

The adverbial clause may express **manner.**

1. He died as he lived.

He died *in the manner in which* he lived. For diagram, see sentence 1 in Exercise 36.

2. The upright man speaks as he thinks.

3. Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.

The subject of the first *do* is *you* understood. *Them do* is an infinitive clause with the *to* of the infinitive omitted. See page 61.

4. Just as the twig is bent, the tree is inclined.

5. The waves of conversation roll and shape our thoughts as the surf rolls and shapes the pebbles on the shore.

The adverbial clause may express **real cause.**

6. The sea is rough because it stormed last night.

In diagraming, *because*, a mere conjunction, stands on a line wholly dotted.

7. Slang is always vulgar, as it is an affected way of talking.

8. We keep the pores of the skin open, for through them the blood throws off impurities.

9. Since the breath contains poisonous gas, wise people ventilate their bedrooms.

10. Gasoline is a valuable fuel because so many engines are now run by its power.

11. Wheat is the most valuable of grains because bread is made from its flour.

The adverbial clause may express **evidence** or **proof.**

12. God was angry with the children of Israel, for He overthrew them in the wilderness.

13. Tobacco and the potato are American products, since Raleigh found them here.

14. It rained last night, because the ground is wet this morning.

The adverbial clause may express **condition.**

15. If the air is quickly compressed, it becomes heated.

16. Unless your thought packs easily and neatly in verse, always use prose.

17. If ever you saw a crow with a kingbird after him, you have an image of a dull speaker and a lively listener.

18. The earth, were it stopped in its orbit to-morrow, would rush toward the sun.

The position of the subject and the verb renders the *if* unnecessary. This omission of *if* is a common idiom.

19. Should the sun's rays be shut off from the earth, all life would die.

LESSON 38

COMPLEX SENTENCES; ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

EXERCISE 38

I. *Analyze these sentences:*

The adverbial clause may express **purpose.**

1. Language was given us that we might say pleasant things to each other.

That, introducing a clause of purpose, is a mere conjunction.

2. In several large cities, underground and overhead railways have been built in order that street traffic may not become congested.

The phrases *in order that, so that=that.*

3. The canal across the Isthmus of Panama was dug so that vessels need not sail around Cape Horn to reach the Pacific Ocean.

4. In sending packages by parcel post, it is well to have them insured so that they may receive special care.

The adverbial clause may express **concession.**

5. Although the brain is only one fortieth of the body, about one sixth of the blood is sent to it.

6. Though the atmosphere presses on us with a load of fifteen pounds on every square inch of surface, we do not feel its weight.

7. Although potatoes grow underground, yet they are a part of the plant's stalk.

8. If the forest ranger cannot prevent all forest fires, he can often check and extinguish them.

If here=*though.*

9. Though many rivers flow into the Mediterranean, they are not sufficient to make up the loss caused by evaporation.

II. *Select the adverbial clauses in the following sentences and tell what each expresses:*

1. Birds will desert their nests if they are much disturbed.

2. Where law ends, tyranny begins.

3. In large cities, snow is a great nuisance, for it costs many thousands of dollars to remove it from the streets.

4. Although the snow does much damage, we would be badly off without it.

5. It is valuable to man because it protects plants and crops, and prevents them from being winter-killed.

6. The train was so late that we missed our connection at the junction.

LESSON 39

COMPLEX SENTENCES; SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

Wisdom is better than rubies=*To be wise* is better than rubies=*That men should be wise* is better than rubies. The subordinate clause *that men should be wise* is equivalent to a noun and is the **subject** of *is.*

"Few people always remember that haste makes waste." The subordinate clause introduced by *that* is equivalent to a noun, and is the **object** of *remember.*

"A peculiarity of English is, that it has so many borrowed words." The clause introduced by *that* is equivalent to a noun, and is an **attribute complement** relating to *peculiarity*.

"The fact that the earth is a sphere was not widely believed in the time of Columbus." The clause introduced by *that* is equivalent to a noun, and is explanatory of *fact;* it is an **appositive.**

"Much depends on when and where you read a book." The clause *when and where you read a book* is equivalent to a noun, and is the **principal term of a phrase** introduced by the preposition *on*.

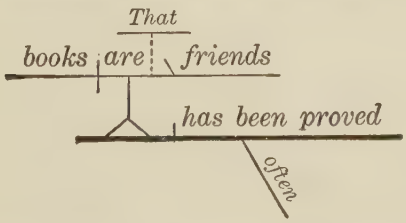
A clause that does the work of a noun is called a **substantive clause.**

EXERCISE 39

Analyze these sentences:

The substantive clause may be used as a **subject.**

1. That books are friends has been often proved.



The clause *that books are friends* is used like a noun as the subject of *has been proved.* The conjunction *that* introduces the substantive clause. This is a peculiar kind of complex sentence in which the whole sentence takes the place of a principal clause.

A substantive clause used as a complement is diagramed in a similar way and rests on the complement line.

2. That the same word, *spirit*, is used for the soul of man and for a glass of gin is singular.

3. "I forgot" is a threadbare excuse.

4. Where Captain Kidd hid his treasure has never been discovered.

The subject clause is here an *indirect question*. (See page 212 for an explanation of indirect questions.)

5. When letters were first used is not certainly known.

6. "Where is Abel, thy brother?" smote the ears of the guilty Cain.

7. When to quit business and enjoy their wealth is a problem never solved by some.

The substantive clause may be used as an **object.**

8. James Watt showed that steam is powerful.

The clause introduced by *that* is used like a noun as the direct object of *showed*.

9. "Will you walk into my parlor?"
Said a spider to a fly.

10. The world will not anxiously inquire who you are.

11. It will ask of you, "What can you do?"

12. The horseman stopped, and in a cheery voice asked what the trouble was.

13. In "Life on the Mississippi," Mark Twain tells how he learned to be a steamboat pilot.

14. He shows us that piloting was a very difficult but a very interesting business.

15. The peacock struts about, saying, "What a fine tail I have!"

LESSON 40

COMPLEX SENTENCES; SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

EXERCISE 40

Analyze these sentences:

The substantive clause may be used as an **attribute complement.**

1. One beauty of the English language is that it is so rich in words.

2. Nelson's message was, "England expects every man to do his duty."

3. The question before the committee is, "How shall we raise the money?"

4. Hamlet's exclamation was, "What a piece of work is man!"

5. The saying concerning Achilles was that he was invulnerable in every part except the heel.

The substantive clause may be used as an **appositive.**

6. It has often been proved that books are friends.

It is an expletive. See sentence 1, page 60, for a diagram and explanation of this construction.

7. It is believed that sleep is caused by a diminution in the supply of blood to the brain.

8. The fact that mold, mildew, and yeast are plants is wonderful.

9. Shakespeare's metaphor, "Night's candles are burnt out," is one of the finest in literature.

10. The advice in regard to conformity to local custom was in substance this: "When in Rome, do as the Romans do."

11. This we know, that our future depends on our present.

12. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends.

The substantive clause may be used as the **principal term of a prepositional phrase.**

13. The sailor had no knowledge of where he was drifting.

Where he was drifting is an indirect question used as the principal term of a prepositional phrase.

In diagraming, the support for the substantive clause rests upon the line for the object of the preposition *of*.

14. There has been some dispute about who wrote Shakespeare's plays.

15. Before Franklin's experiment, people were not certain that lightning is a form of electricity.

By supposing *of* to stand before *that*, we may regard the substantive clause as the principal term of a prepositional phrase modifying the adjective *certain*. If we supply *of the fact*, the substantive clause becomes explanatory.

16. We are all anxious that the future shall bring us success and triumph.

17. She was sure that the dog could find his way home from any place within fifty miles of the farm.

LESSON 41

REVIEW OF COMPLEX AND SIMPLE SENTENCES

EXERCISE 41

Write:

1. Three simple sentences.
2. Three complex sentences.
3. Two complex sentences containing adjective clauses.

Write a complex sentence containing

4. An adverbial clause of time.
5. An adverbial clause of place.
6. An adverbial clause of degree.
7. An adverbial clause of manner.
8. An adverbial clause of condition.
9. An adverbial clause of purpose.
10. An adverbial clause of concession.

LESSON 42

REVIEW OF COMPLEX SENTENCES

EXERCISE 42

I. *Write complex sentences containing*

1. A substantive clause used as subject.
2. A substantive clause used as direct object.
3. A substantive clause used as an appositive.
4. A substantive clause used as the object of a preposition.

II. *Analyze each of the sentences you have written.*

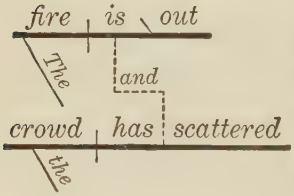
LESSON 43

COMPOUND SENTENCES

A compound sentence is one composed of two or more principal clauses.

Each principal clause of a compound sentence states a fact independently of the other clause.

DIAGRAM. The fire is out and the crowd has scattered.



The lines of these two clause diagrams are shaded alike to show that the two clauses are of the same rank. The connecting line is not slanting, for one clause is not a modifier of the other. As one entire clause is connected with the other, the connecting line is drawn between the predicate verbs, since they are the important words.

ORAL ANALYSIS. This is a compound sentence, because it is made up of two principal clauses.

EXERCISE 43

Analyze these sentences:

Principal clauses in the **same line of thought:**

1. The north wind doth blow,
   And we shall have snow.

2. Leaves breathe for the roots, and the roots suck in food for the leaves.

3. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.

Principal clauses expressing thoughts in **contrast:**

4. Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard are sweeter.

5. Speech is great, but silence is greater.

6. Put not your trust in money, but put your money in trust.

Principal clauses expressing thoughts in **alternation:**

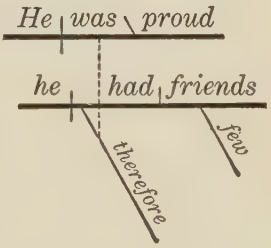
7. Be temperate in youth, or you will have to be abstinent in old age.

8. Either Hamlet was mad, or he feigned madness admirably.

Principal clauses expressing thoughts one of which **is an inference** from the other.

9. People in the streets are carrying umbrellas, hence it must be raining.

10. He was proud; therefore he had few friends.



In such constructions, *and* may be supplied, or the adverb may be regarded as the connective. The diagram illustrates *therefore* as connective.

Principal clauses joined in the sentence **without a conjunction.**

11. The camel is the ship of the ocean of sand; the reindeer is the camel of the desert of snow.

12. Truth is the work of God; falsehoods are the work of man.

13. The ship leaps, as it were, from billow to billow.

As it were is a principal clause used parenthetically and independently. *As* simply introduces it.

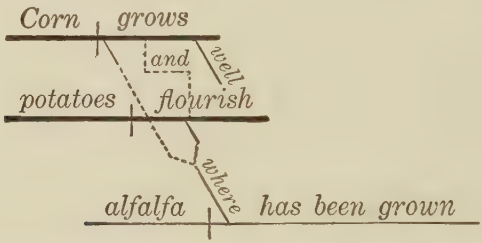
14. Washington (so Lincoln once said) is the mightiest name on earth.

LESSON 44

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND CLAUSES

The clauses of complex and compound sentences may themselves be **complex** or **compound clauses.**

Corn grows well and potatoes flourish, where alfalfa has been grown for several years.



The diagram shows that the clause *where alfalfa has been grown* modifies both predicates of the principal clauses. *Where* modifies *grows, flourish*, and *has been grown*, as illustrated by the short lines under the first two verbs and the line over *has been grown*. The function of *where* as connective is shown by the dotted lines.

EXERCISE 44

Analyze these sentences:

1. Sin has many tools, but a lie is the handle which fits them all.

2. Still the wonder grew
That one small head could carry all he knew.

3. Industry pays debts, while despair increases them.

4. When a man becomes overheated by working, running, rowing, or making furious speeches, six or seven millions of perspiration tubes pour out their fluid, and the whole body is bathed and cooled.

5. In Holland the stork is protected by law because it eats the frogs and worms that injure the dikes.

6. No man is born into the world whose work is not born with him.

7. I suppose he did not know how the words shocked old Colonel Morgan, who was holding court.

8. They called him "Plain-Buttons" because, while he always chose to wear a regulation army uniform, he was not permitted to wear the army button.

9. There is a story that Nolan once met Burr, on one of our vessels, when a party of Americans came on board in the Mediterranean.

10. Speak clearly if you speak at all;
Carve every word before you let it fall.

LESSON 45

REVIEW OF SENTENCES

EXERCISE 45

Classify the following sentences according to their use and their form. Name the principal and the subordinate clauses in the complex sentences.

1. The problem of securing an adequate income to the farmer's family is partly a problem of securing an adequate supply of land and capital for them.

2. What is so rare as a day in June?

3. I am not bound to win, but I am bound to be true.

4. Take your bow, O Hiawatha,
Take your arrows, jasper-headed.

5. Here once the embattled farmers stood,
And fired the shot heard round the world.

6. When Freedom from her mountain height
Unfurled her standard in the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.

7. Oh, what a tangled web we weave,
When first we practice to deceive.

8. Alas! in winter dead and dark,
Where can poor Robin go?

9. Is life so dear or peace so sweet as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery?

10. Come unto these yellow sands,
And then take hands.

11. "You are old, Father William," the young man said.

12. Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

13. The soldier stepped from the trenches into the furrow; horses that had charged federal guns marched before the plow; fields that ran red with human blood in April were green with harvest in June; and there was little bitterness in all this.

14. Far to the south, Mr. President, lies the fairest and richest domain of this earth.

LESSON 46

REVIEW OF SENTENCES

EXERCISE 46

Write or give orally:

1. A simple sentence.

2. A complex sentence.

3. Four compound sentences.

4. A compound sentence having two principal clauses, one of which contains a subordinate clause.

5. A compound sentence of two members, both of which contain subordinate clauses.

6. One example of each of the four kinds of sentences classified with regard to use.

7. Sentences illustrating the different uses of the substantive clause.

LESSON 47

REVIEW OF ANALYSIS

EXERCISE 47

Analyze these sentences:

1. The setting of a great hope is like the setting of the sun.

2. Prayer is the key of the morning and the bolt of the night.

3. We think in words; and when we lack fit words, we lack fit thoughts.

4. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast,
To soften rocks, or bend a knotted oak.

5. Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense,
Lie in three words—*health*, *peace*, and *competence*.

6. A wind came up out of the sea
And said, "O mists, make room for me."

7. Cheerfulness banishes all anxious care and discontent, soothes and composes the passions, and keeps the soul in perpetual calm.

8. And when you stick on conversation's burrs,
Don't strew your pathway with those dreadful *ur's*.

9. Kind hearts are more than coronets;
And simple faith than Norman blood.

10. There is a class of people among us so conservative that they are afraid the roof will come down if you sweep off the cobwebs.

11. The nearest star is so far from the earth that its light takes more than four years to come to the earth.

12. Rip Van Winkle, however, was one of those happy mortals, of well-oiled dispositions, who take the world easily.

13. Van Twiller's full-fed cheeks, which seemed to have taken toll of everything that went into his mouth, were curiously mottled and streaked with dusky red, like a spitzenburg apple.

14. He prayeth best who loveth best
All things both great and small;
For the dear God, who loveth us,
He made and loveth all.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

LESSON 48

CLASSES OF NOUNS

You have learned that nouns are names; as, **girl**, Gertrude. The name *girl* is held in common by all girls, and hence does not distinguish one girl from another. The name *Gertrude* is not thus held in common; it distinguishes one girl from other girls. A name which belongs in common to all things of a class we call a **common noun**. Any particular name of an individual, distinguishing this individual from others of its class, we call a **proper noun.**

Such a word as *wheat, music,* or *architecture* does not distinguish one thing from another of its class. There is only one thing in the class denoted by each—that is, each thing forms a class by itself; so we call these words common nouns.

A noun is a word used as the name of anything.

A common noun is a name which belongs to all things of a class.

A proper noun is the individual name of a particular person, place, or thing.

There are two special classes of common nouns, **collective** and **abstract.**

A collective noun is the name of a number of things taken together; as, army, flock, mob, jury.

An abstract noun is the name of a quality, an action, a being, or a state; as, whiteness, beauty, wisdom, singing, existence, sleep.

A collective noun requires a verb in the plural when the individuals in the collection are thought of; but when the collection as a whole is thought of, the verb should be singular.

EXAMPLES. A *number* of our tourists were inclined to turn back.

The *number* present was not ascertained.

EXERCISE 48

Point out the nouns and tell the class to which each belongs.

1. We are such stuff as dreams are made on,
   And our little life is rounded with a sleep.
2. The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars,
   But in ourselves, that we are underlings.
3. Like the swell of some sweet tune,
   Morning rises into noon,
   May glides onward into June.
4. The appearance of the island, when I came on deck the next morning, was altogether changed.
5. London is the clearing-house of the world.
6. A thing of beauty is a joy forever;
   Its loveliness increases; it will never
   Pass into nothingness; but still will keep
   A bower quiet for us, and a sleep
   Full of sweet dreams, and health, and quiet breathing.

7. The next day the magician led Aladdin into some beautiful gardens a long way outside the city gates.

8. Peace hath her victories
No less renowned than war.

9. There are several steps in the decline of an orderly crowd into a riotous mob.

10. I do not believe that the world can show a spectacle more impressive than the march of a large Indian village over the prairies.

LESSON 49

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun.

A personal pronoun is one that by its form denotes the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

EXAMPLES. I, thou, you, he, she, it.

A relative pronoun is one that relates to some preceding word or words and connects clauses.

EXAMPLES. That is the man *who* built our house.
The trip *which* we planned must be given up.
She hath done *what* she could.
How poor are they *that* have not patience.

An interrogative pronoun is one that is used in asking a question.

EXAMPLES. *Who* won the game?
Which shall it be?
What is the matter?

A demonstrative pronoun is one that points out an object.

The demonstrative pronouns are *this, these, that, those.* These words are frequently adjectives. Their use in sentences determines whether they are pronouns or adjectives.

EXAMPLES. *This* is my first visit. (*Pronoun*)
This coat is mine. (*Adjective*)

An indefinite pronoun points out objects in a general or indefinite way.

EXAMPLES. One, some one, any, any one, no one, none, every one, each, another, the other, neither, both.

The possessive pronouns denote possession.

The possessive pronouns are: mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs, whose. When these words do the work of adjectives, they are called **pronominal adjectives.**

EXAMPLES. My daily task is now done; *yours* is just beginning. (*Possessive pronoun.*)
This umbrella is *yours.* (*Pronominal adjective*)
Of all the corn at the show, *his* was the best. (*Possessive pronoun*)
His work is done. (*Pronominal adjective*)

The antecedent of a pronoun is the word, phrase, or clause in the place of which the pronoun is used.

EXAMPLES. The *men who* obtain fame labor hard.
George makes *money,* but *he* does not save *it.*
I desire *to be useful; that* is all.
He had heard *that war was declared,* but he did not believe *it.*

EXERCISE 49

I. *Name and classify the pronouns in these sentences:*

1. Lift up your heads, O ye gates.
2. I did send to you for gold to pay my legions,
   Which you denied me.
3. I denied you not; he was but a fool that brought my answer back.
4. Then none was for the party,
   And all were for the state.
5. "Why did you call him Tortoise, if he wasn't one?" Alice asked.
6. "We called him Tortoise because he taught us," said the Mock Turtle angrily; "really you are very dull!"
7. A child asked, "What is the grass?" fetching it to me with full hands.
8. Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman?
   If any, speak, for him have I offended.
9. In ourselves,
   In our own honest hearts and chainless hands,
   Will be our safeguard.
10. That which is everybody's business is nobody's business.
11. That is but the owl and owlet,
    Talking in their native language,
    Talking, scolding at each other.
12. Teach me to feel another's woe.
13. I saw the different things you did,
    But always you yourself you hid.
14. Such a life is very fine,
    But it's not so nice as mine.

II. *Insert the proper pronoun in the blanks and tell the antecedent of the pronoun that you have used.*

1. The poor woman could not conceal —— grief.

2. If Tom has borrowed my racket, I wish that —— would return ——.

3. The school expects every member of the team to do the best that —— can.

4. We expect all students to do —— best.

5. The man —— dined with us yesterday has been to South America.

6. This goal, —— was made by Harrison, won the game for us.

7. But the seafowl is gone to —— nest,
The beast is laid down in —— lair.

8. —— is a good thing to give thanks unto the Lord.

9. O Solitude, where are the charms
—— sages have seen in —— face?

10. If you wish me to follow you, I will do —— .

LESSON 50

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: NUMBER

Number is that modification of a noun or a pronoun which denotes one thing or more than one.

The **singular number** denotes a single thing.

The **plural number** denotes two or more things.

EXERCISE 50

1. The plural of nouns is regularly formed by adding **s** or **es** to the singular.

Write the plural of the following nouns:

canoe	debt	tree	stomach	flock
bouquet	wing	meadow	mouth	wren
island	roof	pasture	crow	chair

2. When the singular ends in the sound of **s, x, z, sh,** or **ch,** it is not agreeable to add the sound of **s,** so **es** is added and makes another syllable.

Write the plural of the following nouns:

box	fox	branch	bench	witch
birch	dish	waltz	dress	brush

3. Many nouns ending in **o** preceded by a consonant form the plural by adding **es** without increasing the number of syllables.

Write the plural of the following nouns:

hero	negro	echo	mosquito
cargo	potato	volcano	motto

4. Common nouns ending in **y** preceded by a consonant form the plural by changing **y** to **i** and adding **es** without increasing the number of syllables.

Write the plural of the following nouns:

family	lady	country	fairy	penny
bakery	city	jury	reply	sky

5. Some nouns ending in **f** and **fe** form the plural by changing **f** or **fe** to **ves** without increasing the number of syllables.

Write the plural of the following nouns:

sheaf	beef	half	self	knife
loaf	thief	elf	wolf	wife
wharf	calf	shelf	life	leaf

6. *From the following list of nouns, select and write in separate columns* (1) those that have no plural; (2) those that have no singular; (3) those that are alike in both numbers:

tactics, pride, shears, news, trousers, cider, victuals, measles, riches, flax, sheep, deer, flour, politics, alms, thanks, elk, scissors, swine, heathen, bellows.

7. The following nouns have irregular plurals—six changing the internal vowel, and two adding **en.**

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
man	men	foot	feet
woman	women	ox	oxen
child	children	tooth	teeth
mouse	mice	goose	geese

8. *Learn the following plurals. Compare them with the other groups in this lesson.*

tomatoes	stories	monkeys	solos	leaves
flies	berries	cuckoos	gulfs	proofs
chimneys	lilies	pianos	chiefs	scarfs
valleys	princesses	vetoes	beliefs	benches

9. *Note the following plurals of titles:*

Mr. Hunt—Messrs. Hunt or the Messrs. Hunt. (Pronounced mĕs′yĕrz.)

Miss Clark—the Misses Clark, or the Miss Clarks.

Mrs. Harman—the Mrs. Harmans.

10. When two or more words are united to make a single noun, we have a **compound noun**; as, flagstaff.

The plurals of compound nouns are generally formed by adding **s** to the principal word, but compounds ending in **ful** generally add **s** to the last syllable.

EXAMPLES.	sons-in-law	commanders-in-chief
	goose-quills	hangers-on
	spoonfuls	pailfuls

11. In writing the plural of figures, letters, and other characters, we add the apostrophe and **s**.

EXAMPLES. a's 2's +'s

Make your *m*'s and *n*'s more carefully.

LESSON 51

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: GENDER

Gender is that modification of a noun or a pronoun which denotes sex.

The **masculine gender** denotes the male sex.

The **feminine gender** denotes the female sex.

The **neuter gender** denotes that a thing is neither male nor female.

The feminine is distinguished from the masculine in these three ways:

(1) By a difference in the ending of the nouns; as, lion, lioness.

(2) By different words in the compound names; as, mother-in-law, father-in-law.

(3) By words wholly or radically different; as, uncle, aunt.

EXERCISE 51

Arrange the following pairs in separate columns with reference to the three ways of distinguishing feminine from masculine:

brother, sister
abbott, abbess
son, daughter
actor, actress
Francis, Frances
bachelor, maid
monk, nun
gander, goose
bull, cow
baron, baroness
earl, countess
czar, czarina
sir, madam
boy, girl
drake, duck
Henry, Henrietta
lord, lady
nephew, niece
landlord, landlady
father, mother
duke, duchess
hero, heroine
host, hostess
man-servant, maid-servant
wizard, witch
widower, widow
heir. heiress
Augustus, Augusta
administrator, administratrix
gentleman, gentlewoman

LESSON 52

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: PERSON

Person is that modification of a noun or a pronoun by which we denote the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of.

The **first person** denotes the one speaking.

The **second person** denotes the one spoken to.

The **third person** denotes the one spoken of.

The form of the noun does not change to denote person.

EXAMPLES. I, *John*, saw these things. (*First person*)
John, bring me the paper. (*Second person*)
I saw *John* yesterday. (*Third person*)
Things, *paper*, and *yesterday* are of the third person.

EXERCISE 52

Give the person, the number, and the gender of each of these nouns and pronouns:

1. Ye crags and peaks, I'm with you once again.
2. Columbus is one of the marvels of history.
3. The moon above the eastern wood
   Shone at its full.
4. Listen, my children, and you shall hear
   Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere.
5. I, the sole survivor, have written down the story.
6. Wildly he shouted and loud: "John Alden! you have betrayed me!"
7. Beneath her torn hat glowed the wealth
   Of simple beauty and rustic health.
8. We dropped the seed o'er the hill and plain
   Beneath the sun of May.

LESSON 53

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: CASE

Case is that modification of a noun or a pronoun by which we denote its function in the sentence.

The **nominative case** of a noun or a pronoun denotes its function as subject, attribute complement, or independent element.

NOTE. When a noun or a pronoun is independent by address, it is called the *nominative of address*. It is also said to be in the *vocative* case, but this term is not widely used in English grammar.

The noun or the pronoun in an absolute phrase is called a *nominative absolute*.

A noun or a pronoun independent by exclamation is called a *nominative of exclamation*.

The **possessive case** of a noun or pronoun denotes its function as possessive modifier.

The **objective case** of a noun or a pronoun denotes its function as direct object, objective complement, indirect object, or as principal word in a prepositional phrase.

NOTE. The possessive case may be called the *genitive* case. The objective case may be called the *accusative*, except in denoting the function of an indirect object. The term *dative* case may be used for an indirect object.

EXAMPLES.

1. The *doctor* never so much as moved. (*Nominative*)
2. But what is the black spot, *Captain?* (*Nominative*)
3. Lizards are *reptiles.* (*Nominative*)
4. The *bear's* grease was made into hair oil. (*Possessive*)
5. The man killed the *bear.* (*Objective*)
6. The squirrel leaps among the *boughs.* (*Objective*)

A noun that completes the predicate and belongs to the object is an objective complement and is in the *objective* case; as, They made Victoria *queen.*

A noun that completes the predicate and belongs to the subject is a predicate noun and is in *the same case as the subject.* In the sentence "Lizards are reptiles," the noun *reptiles* is in the *nominative* case.

The subject of an infinitive clause is in the *objective case;* as, It is necessary for *us* to go, They proved *him* to be a thief.

In the sentence "I proved it to be him," the infinitive clause *it to be him* is the object of the verb *proved.* In this clause, the subject of the infinitive *to be*

is *it*, and *him* is the attribute complement. The subject of an infinitive clause is in the objective case; therefore *him* is in the objective case to agree with the subject.

In the sentence "I proved that it was he," the clause *it was he*, introduced by *that*, is the object of the verb *proved*. *It* is the subject of the verb *was*, and is therefore in the nominative case; hence the attribute complement *he* must be in the nominative—the same case as the subject to which *he* refers.

In the sentence "Whom did you suppose it to be?" *whom* is the attribute complement of the infinitive *to be*, and consequently is in the objective case to agree with *it*, the subject of the infinitive. In "*Who* did you suppose it was?" *who* is nominative for the same reason that *he* is nominative in "I proved that it was he."

"He gave *John* a book; he bought *me* a book." As here used, *John* and *me* are indirect objects in the *objective* case.

Nouns denoting measure, quantity, weight, time, value, distance, or direction are used adverbially, being equivalent to phrase modifiers without prepositions, and are in the *objective* case.

See page 70 for the diagraming of sentences containing nouns used adverbially.

EXERCISE 53

Tell the case of each of the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences:

1. A sparkling morning followed a showery night, and all the little red and white and yellow flowers were lifting glad faces to the sun as we took the high road to Bethlehem.

2. As I was going to Banbury
Upon a summer's day,
My dame had butter, eggs, and cheese.
And I had corn and hay.

3. Smith, smith, beat them fine,
Can you shoe this horse of mine?

4. A camel's load never looks so large as a donkey's, but no doubt he often finds it heavy, and he always looks displeased with it.

5. Shun the habit of "putting off" as you would a temptation to crime.

6. Wherefore let him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he fall.

Take is an infinitive without *to*.

7. Jealousy is cruel as the grave.

LESSON 54

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS: PERSON AND CASE

EXERCISE 54

Remember that a substantive used as an appositive is in the same case as the word it explains, and that a substantive used independently is in the nominative case.

I. *Tell the person and the case of each noun and pronoun:*

1. Across the narrow beach we flit,
One little sandpiper and I.

2. We Americans do things in a hurry.

3. O cuckoo! shall I call thee bird,
Or but a wandering voice?

4. I, your friend, ask you to do this.

5. You, Henry, are attentive.

6. He read us the story of Joan of Arc, the maid of Orleans.

II. 1. *Write simple sentences, using each of these nouns in the three persons and in the three cases:*

George Washington Franklin Filipinos

2. *Write sentences containing a noun in the nominative case:*

Used as a complement.
Used as an appositive.
Used independently.

3. *Write sentences containing a noun in the objective case:*

Used to complete two predicate verbs.
Used to complete a participle.
Used to complete an infinitive.
Used with a preposition to make a phrase.
Used as an appositive.

LESSON 55

THE DECLENSION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

Declension is the arrangement of the case forms of nouns and pronouns in the singular and plural numbers.

Declension of Nouns

Case	*Singular*	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
NOMINATIVE	lady	ladies	child	children
POSSESSIVE	lady's	ladies'	child's	children's
OBJECTIVE	lady	ladies	child	children

Declension of Personal Pronouns

FIRST PERSON

	Singular	*Plural*
NOM.	I	we
POS.	my *or* mine	our *or* ours
OBJ.	me	us

SECOND PERSON

	Singular	*Plural*
NOM.	you	you
POS.	your *or* yours	your *or* yours
OBJ.	you	you

THIRD PERSON

	Singular			*Plural*
	Masculine	*Feminine*	*Neuter*	*All Genders*
NOM.	he	she	it	they
POS.	his	her *or* hers	its	their *or* theirs
OBJ.	him	her	it	them

The *old forms* of the pronouns of the *second person,* which are now used chiefly in poetry and in solemn language, are as follows:

	Singular	*Plural*
NOM.	thou	ye *or* you
POS.	thy *or* thine	your *or* yours
OBJ.	thee	you

Mine, ours, yours, thine, hers, and *theirs* are used when the name of the thing possessed is omitted. "This rose is *yours*" is equivalent to "This rose is *your rose.*"

Remember that the apostrophe is never used in the

possessive case of the personal pronouns ours, yours, hers, its, theirs.

Compound Personal Pronouns

By joining the word *self* to the possessive forms *my, thy, your,* and to the objective forms *him, her, it,* the **compound personal pronouns** are formed. They have no possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and objective cases.

Their plurals are *ourselves, yourselves,* and *themselves.*

Notice the italicized pronouns in these sentences:

The President *himself* spoke to us.
I *myself* have never visited St. Louis, though my brothers have.
Love *thyself* last.
They think only of *themselves.*

In the first two sentences, *himself* and *myself* emphasize or intensify the words (*President* and *I*) with which they are in apposition. Because they are used in this way, they are called **intensive pronouns.**

In the third and fourth sentences above, *themselves* and *thyself* refer to the subject, though they are objects of the preposition or the verb. In this use, they are called **reflexive pronouns.**

Relative and Interrogative Pronouns

	Singular and Plural	*Singular and Plural*
Nom.	who	which
Pos.	whose	whose
Obj.	whom	which

In referring to things without animal life, *of which* is often used instead of the possessive *whose*.

Who, both as a relative and as an interrogative pronoun, is used to refer to persons. *Which*, relative and interrogative, is used to refer to animals and things. The relative *that* is used to refer to persons, animals, or things. *That* is never an interrogative pronoun.

The relative *that* and the relative and interrogative *what* are not declined.

As is sometimes a relative pronoun. Its antecedent is *such* or *same*. It is not declined.

EXAMPLE. We lent him such garments *as* we had.

Notice these examples of the use of *who*, *which*, and *what* as interrogative pronouns, and of *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that* as relative pronouns:

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS:

Who can tell?
Whose song is the best?
Whom did you visit?
Which shall it be?
Which do you prefer?
What did he say?
With *what* shall we close?

RELATIVE PRONOUNS:

He *who* tells the story was a witness of the accident.
The man *whose* work is done on time has leisure.
I saw the man *whom* you assisted.
The dog *which* bit the boy belonged to a neighbor.
We saw a hut, the windows *of which* were stuffed with rags.

I will take the gun *which* you do not want.
I will take the gun *that* you do not want.
The gun, *which* to me was useless, was to him a treasure.
I hear *what* you are saying.

Ever and *soever* are added to *who*, *which*, and *what* to form the **compound relative pronouns.** These pronouns refer indefinitely to persons or things, as if the antecedent were *any one*, *anything*, or some other vague expression.

EXAMPLES. *Whatever* is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.
Man can make himself *whatsoever* he will.

EXERCISE 55

I. *Learn and recite all of the declensions given in Lesson 55.*

II. *How many different forms does each of the following nouns and pronouns take when declined?*

1. man	3. girl	5. I	7. who	9. James
2. woman	4. boy	6. you	8. child	10. she

LESSON 56

POSSESSIVE FORMS

The possessive case of nouns is formed in the singular by adding the apostrophe and the letter s ('s); in the plural, by adding the apostrophe (') only. If the plural does not end in s, both the apostrophe and s are added.

EXAMPLES.	boy's	boys'
	John's	men's
	Charles's	

Possession may be expressed also by the preposition *of* and the objective case; as, the *mosquito's* bill, or the bill *of the mosquito.*

The possessive sign ('s) is confined chiefly to the names of persons and animals. We do not say *the chair's legs,* but *the legs of the chair.*

In using the possessive form, we must consider the **sound** of the words. "Henry's uncle's partner's house" does not sound so well as "the house of the partner of Henry's uncle."

To avoid the unpleasant sound of several *s's,* we sometimes use only the apostrophe in the possessive singular; as, for *conscience'* sake.

When there are several possessive nouns which indicate **joint ownership,** the possessive sign is added to the last noun only. If they indicate separate ownership, the sign is added to each. "Butcher and Lang's translation of the Odyssey" means the translation made by Butcher and Lang working together. "Pope's and Bryant's translations of the Odyssey" refers to two translations, one by Pope and the other by Bryant.

When one possessive noun is **explanatory** of another, the possessive sign is added to the last only; as, *William the Conqueror's* fleet; *Brown the plumber's* house.

A **compound noun,** or a group of words that make one name or title, forms the possessive by adding the sign to the last word; as, my *sister-in-law's* automobile, the *King of Spain's* crown.

In the sentence "This news of father's is exciting," a **double possessive** form is used, the *'s* and also the *of* phrase.

EXERCISE 56

I. *Correct the following errors:*

1. That house is our's. Do you like it's appearance?
2. I consulted Webster and Worcester's dictionary.
3. Did you notice the sky's color yesterday evening?
4. I called at Tom's the tinker's.
5. We should purchase Shakespeare and Milton's works.
6. Do you like Longfellows' poems?
6. He sat upon the porch's edge and told his story.
7. We visited George's father's friend's farm.

II. *Write the possessive singular and the possessive plural of these words, and place an appropriate noun after each possessive:*

robin	ox	child	mosquito
cuckoo	farmer	hero	bee
shepherd	fly	thief	mouse
friend	man	neighbor	wolf
fox	woman	cow	fairy

LESSON 57

FORMS OF THE PRONOUN

Remember that *I, we, thou, ye, he, she, they,* and *who* are nominative forms and must not be used in the objective case.

It is *incorrect* to say, "Who did you see?" *Who* is the nominative form and should not be used as the object of the verb *did see.* The sentence should read, "*Whom* did you see?"

It is *incorrect* to say, "That is a secret between you and I," because the objective form of the pronoun should be used. The correct form is, "That is a secret between you and *me*."

Remember that *me, us, thee, him, her, them,* and *whom* are objective forms and must not be used as nominatives. *Her* is a possessive form also.

It is *incorrect* to say, "Him and me are good friends," because the objective form of these pronouns is here used as subject of the verb. The sentence should read, "*He* and *I* are good friends."

The eight nominative forms and the seven objective forms given above are the only distinctive nominative and objective forms in the English language. You should become thoroughly familiar with them and form the habit of using them correctly.

Remember that pronouns must agree with their antecedents in number, gender, and person.

It is *incorrect* to say, "Every boy must read their own sentences." What is the antecedent of *their?* Why is *their* the wrong word to use here? Give the correct form for the sentence.

Remember that the relative pronoun *who* represents persons; *which*, animals and things; and *that*, persons, animals, and things.

WRONG. The boy which I met was very tired.

WRONG. I own the dog who runs to meet me.

Give the correct form for these two sentences.

The possessive pronoun *his* is used when its antecedent is both masculine and feminine; as, Each pupil may bring *his* paper to the desk. It is not necessary to say "*his or her* paper."

EXERCISE 57

I. *Fill each blank with the correct form of the relative or personal pronoun, in each case giving the reason for your choice:*

1. Father and —— usually play checkers in the evening.

2. The only ones at dinner were —— and ——.

3. —— girls have formed a basket-ball team.

4. If —— were ——, what would —— do?

5. —— can answer this question? —— can.

6. The high school team has challenged —— boys to a game of football.

7. Will you please indicate —— you wish to see?

8. —— weighs more than ——.

9. —— has been elected president?

10. —— do not know —— was nominated.

11. —— do not know either; but it was not ——.

12. Every one must think for —— self.

13. —— have asked —— and —— to visit ——.

14. —— did not ask ——.

15. The captain said, "—— shall we choose for this dangerous errand?" and the young soldier answered, "——."

II. *Select and parse all the nouns and pronouns in Exercise 30, according to the model on page 118.*

WRITTEN PARSING: NOUNS. Blackmore's novel, "Lorna Doone," is a masterpiece of fiction.

CLASSIFICATION		MODIFICATIONS				SYNTAX
Nouns	*Kind*	*Person*	*Number*	*Gender*	*Case*	
Blackmore's	Prop.	3d	Sing.	Mas.	Pos.	Pos. mod. of *novel*
novel	Com.	"	"	Neuter	Nom.	Subj. of *is*
Lorna Doone	Prop.	"	"	"	"	Appositive of *novel*
masterpiece	Com.	"	"	"	"	Pred. noun with *is*
fiction	"	"	"	"	Obj.	Prin. word after *of*

The **syntax** of a word is its use in the sentence.

LESSON 58

ANALYSIS AND PARSING

EXERCISE 58

Analyze these sentences and parse the nouns and pronouns:

1. The friendship between you and me I will not compare to a chain.

2. In the best books, great men give us their most precious thoughts.

3. The right honorable gentleman is indebted to his memory for his jests and to his imagination for his facts.

4. Nature never did betray the heart that loved her.

5. He is the freeman whom the truth makes free.

6. The music in my heart I bore
Long after it was heard no more.

7. We may live without friends, we may live without books,
But civilized man cannot live without cooks.

8. Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations" is one of the most important books that were ever written.

9. I know not where His islands lift
Their fronded palms in air;
I only know I cannot drift
Beyond His love and care.

10. A great interpreter of life ought not himself to need interpretation.

11. He serves his party best who serves his country best.

12. What men have done can still be done,
And shall be done to-day.

LESSON 59

CLASSES OF VERBS

"The man *caught*" makes no complete assertion and is not a sentence. If we add the object *fish*, we complete the assertion and form a sentence—"The man *caught fish*." The action expressed by *caught* passes over from the man to the fish. The word *transitive* means passing over. Hence all verbs which express an action that passes over from the doer to something which receives it are called **transitive verbs.**

"Fish *swim*." The verb *swim* does not require an object to complete the sentence. No action passes from a doer to a receiver. Verbs which express action that

does not pass over to a receiver, and verbs which express only being, are called **intransitive verbs.**

A verb that is transitive in one sentence may be intransitive in another; as,

Helen *reads* well. Helen *reads* the magazine.

An intransitive verb may be a **complete** verb or a **linking** verb.

In the sentence "Fish swim," the verb itself makes the complete predicate. *Swim* is therefore a complete verb.

In the sentence "Ice feels cold," a complement is needed to describe the subject. *Feels* therefore serves to link *ice* and *cold*, and is called a linking verb.

When I say, "I *open* the door," I express an action that is going on in present time. "I *opened* the door," expresses an action that took place in past time. As the word *tense* means time, we call the form *open* the present tense of the verb, and *opened* the past tense.

In the sentence "The door, *opened* to the south, lets in the sunlight," *opened*, expressing the action as assumed, is a participle; and as the action is completed, we call *opened* a past participle.

Now notice that **ed** was added to *open*, the verb in the present tense, to form the past tense and the past participle. Most verbs form their past tense and their past participle by adding **ed**; we call them **regular verbs.**

Notice the verbs in these sentences:

I *see* the man.
I *saw* the man.
The man *seen* by me ran away.

I *catch* fish in the brook.
I *caught* fish in the brook.
The fish *caught* in the brook tasted good.

The verbs *see* and *catch* do not form their past tense and past participle by adding **ed** to the present; we call them **irregular verbs.**

A verb is a word that asserts action, being, or state of being.

A transitive verb is one that requires an object.

An intransitive verb is one that does not require an object.

A regular verb is one that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present tense.

An irregular verb is one that does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present tense.

EXERCISE 59

I. *Write ten regular verbs; ten irregular verbs.*

II. *Select the transitive and the intransitive verbs, the regular and the irregular verbs in these sentences:*

1. The man broke the seals with great care.

2. You can fancy the excitement into which that letter put me.

3. We will sit here and talk.

4. We ran on deck.

5. By good fortune, Hunter pulled a good oar.

6. "Mr. Hands," he said, "here are two of us with a brace of pistols each."

7. The sun had just set; the sea breeze was rustling and tumbling in the woods, and ruffling the gray surface of the anchorage.

8. Suddenly, with a loud huzza, a little cloud of pirates leaped from the woods on the north side and ran straight on to the stockade.

9. "Gray," resumed Mr. Smollett, "I am leaving this ship, and I order you to follow your captain."

10. It was broad day when I awoke and found myself tossing at the southwest end of Treasure Island.

LESSON 60

VERBS: VOICE

I *fed* the horse.

The horse *was fed* by me.

The first verb, *fed*, shows that the subject represents the actor; and the second form, *was fed*, shows that the subject names the thing acted upon.

This change in the form and the use of the verb is called **voice.** The first form is called the **active voice;** and the second, the **passive voice.**

The passive voice is a convenient form to use when we wish to assert an action without naming the actor. "Money *is coined*" is better than "*Somebody coins* money."

The active voice is usually a more forcible form of statement than the passive.

Voice is that modification of the transitive verb which shows whether the subject names the actor or the thing acted upon.

The active voice shows that the subject names the actor.

The passive voice shows that the subject names the thing acted upon.

When a verb is changed from the active to the passive voice, that which was its object becomes its subject; as, I caught *him; He* was caught by me. When a verb has both a direct object and an objective complement, the objective complement becomes a predicate noun when the verb is made passive; as, They made David *king;* David was made *king.* In the latter sentence, *king* is a predicate noun.

A verb having both a direct and an indirect object may retain the direct object in the passive form when the indirect object has become the subject; as, Several friends offered me *assistance;* I was offered *assistance* by several friends. When the direct object is retained in the passive voice, it is called the **retained object.**

A verb may keep its indirect object in the passive voice; as, Assistance was offered *me* by several friends. In this case, *me* continues to be the indirect object; it is not called the retained object.

EXERCISE 60

I. *Change the voice of the verb without changing the meaning of the sentence, and make the other changes that are needed:*

1. The industrious bees gather honey from the flowers.
2. The storm drove the vessel against the rock.
3. Our words should be carefully chosen.
4. Exercise strengthens the muscles and keeps the body in good condition.
5. True valor protects the feeble and humbles the oppressor.
6. Marconi invented the wireless telegraph.

7. Moses led the Israelites out of Egypt.

8. Dr. Livingstone explored a large part of Africa.

9. Who discovered the circulation of the blood?

10. Mary Lyon believed that opportunities for higher education should be open to women.

II. *Name all the transitive verbs in Exercises 30 and 34 and tell the voice of each.*

LESSON 61

VERBS: MOOD AND TENSE

(1) When I say, "James *walks*," I assert the walking as a fact.

(2) When I say, "If I *were* you, I would go to college," I assert the condition (that I am you) as one contrary to fact. If I say, "Long *live* the king!" I express a wish, not a fact.

(3) When I say to James, "*Walk* faster," I do not assert that James actually does the act; I assert the action as a command.

The action or being expressed by the verbs in these sentences is expressed in three different ways, or **moods.** The first way is called the **indicative mood;** the second, the **subjunctive mood;** the third, the **imperative mood.**

NOTE. The word *mode* is sometimes used (instead of *mood*) to indicate these forms of the verb.

The three forms of the verb called the **infinitive,** the **participle,** and the **gerund,** have already been studied, in Lessons 23-29. Review these lessons thoroughly.

(1) I walk.
(2) I walked.
(3) I shall walk.

In each of these sentences, the manner of asserting the action is the same. "I *walk*" expresses the action as present. "I *walked*" expresses the action as past. "I *shall walk*" expresses the action as future.

As the word *tense* means time, the first form is called the **present tense**; the second, the **past tense**; and the third, the **future tense.**

We have three other forms of the verb, expressing the action as completed in the present, the past, or the future.

(1) I *have walked* a mile to-day.
(2) I *had walked* a mile before luncheon.
(3) I *shall have walked* three miles by noon to-morrow.

The form *have walked*, expressing the action as completed in the present, is called the **present perfect tense.**

The form *had walked*, expressing the action as completed in the past, is called the **past perfect tense.**

The form *shall have walked*, expressing an action to be completed in the future, is called the **future perfect tense.**

A group of words used as a single verb is sometimes called a **verb phrase**; as, shall have walked, must be done.

I *walk.*	He *walks.*
Thou *walkest.*	They *walk.*

In the second sentence, the verb *walk* was changed by adding **est**; and in the third, it was changed by adding **s.** These changes make the verb agree with the

person of the subject. The verb ending in **est** agrees with the subject *thou* in the second person, and the verb ending in **s** agrees with *he* in the third person. In the fourth sentence, the subject is in the third person; but as it is plural, the verb drops the **s** to agree with the plural *they*.

Verbs are said to agree in **person** and **number** with their subjects. The person and number forms may be found in Lessons 63 and 64.

In the sentence "It is raining," the subject *it* does not denote any definite person or thing. The verb *is raining* is therefore called an **impersonal verb.**

NOTE. The indicative, subjunctive, and imperative forms of the verb are sometimes called *finite verbs.* The word *finite* means limited. As these forms of the verb vary according to the time expressed, and the number and person of the subject, they are considered as limited or finite.

The *infinite* (not finite) or unlimited forms of the verb are the infinitive, the gerund, and the participle.

Mood is that modification of the verb which denotes the manner of asserting the action or being.

The **indicative mood** asserts the action or being as a fact.

The **subjunctive mood** asserts the action or being as a wish, a supposition, or a condition contrary to fact.

The **imperative mood** asserts the action or being as a command or an entreaty.

The **infinitive** is a form of the verb which names the action or being in a general way, without making an assertion.

The **participle** is a form of the verb which has also the nature of an adjective; it expresses the action or being as assumed.

The **present participle** denotes action or being as continuing at the time indicated by the predicate.

The **past participle** denotes action or being as past or completed at the time indicated by the predicate.

The **past perfect participle** denotes action or being as completed at a time previous to that indicated by the predicate.

The **gerund** is a form of the verb ending in *ing* which has also the nature of a noun.

Tense is that modification of the verb which expresses the time of the action or being.

The **present tense** expresses action or being as occurring in present time.

The **past tense** expresses action or being as occurring in past time.

The **future tense** expresses action or being as yet to come.

The **present perfect tense** expresses action or being as completed at the present time.

The **past perfect tense** expresses action or being as completed at some past time.

The **future perfect tense** expresses action or being to be completed at some future time.

The **number** and **person** of a verb are the modifications that show its agreement with the number and person of its subject.

EXERCISE 61

Classify the verbs and tell the mood and tense of each:

1. Sometimes I surprised shaggy old bulls grazing alone, or sleeping behind the ridges I ascended.

2. They usually leaped up at my approach, stared stupidly at me through their tangled manes, and then galloped heavily away.

3. As the Indian approached, we stopped to wait for him, when suddenly he vanished, sinking, as it were, into the earth.

4. A tall Indian, gliding in, shook us by the hand, grunted his salutation, and sat down on the floor.

5. As I descended the hill, the howling of wolves and the barking of foxes came up out of the dim woods.

6. When we had galloped a mile or more, a large rabbit, by ill luck, sprang up just under the feet of the mule.

7. I was flung forcibly to the ground, and my rifle, falling close to my head, went off with a shock.

8. Just before reaching the fort, they had met a large party of Indians.

9. Suddenly their bridles were violently seized, and they were ordered to dismount.

10. Instead of complying, they struck their horses with full force and broke away from the Indians.

LESSON 62

CONJUGATION OF VERBS

Conjugation is the regular arrangement of all the forms of the verb.

Synopsis is the regular arrangement of the forms of one number and person in all the moods and tenses.

The **principal parts** of a verb are the first person, singular number, of the present indicative, and of the past indicative, and the past participle. These are called principal parts because all the other forms of the verb are derived from them.

Auxiliary verbs are those that help other verbs to make assertions. The auxiliaries are *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can,* and *must.*

May, can, will, shall, must, and their past forms are called **modal auxiliaries.** The verbs which follow them are really infinitives with *to* omitted. The tense forms of these modal auxiliaries are:

Present	Past
may	might
can	could
will	would
shall	should
must	———

In parsing and analysis, verb phrases made with these auxiliaries may be regarded as one verb.

It is important to learn the principal parts of the common irregular verbs, as given below.

Note. These irregular verbs form their past tense and past participle by a change of the vowel; they are sometimes called *strong verbs.* Verbs that form their past tense by adding *ed* (or *d* or *t*) are called *weak verbs.*

Irregular Verbs

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
am	was	been
begin	began	begun
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
freeze	froze	frozen
go	went	gone
get	got	got *or* gotten
give	gave	given
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
lie (to rest)	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
sit	sat	sat
shake	shook	shaken
sing	sang	sung
slay	slew	slain
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
write	wrote	written

The perfect tense and the passive voice are formed by combining the proper form of the verb *be* with the past participle, not with the past tense. We say, "I have *gone*," not "I have *went*." Carelessness in this matter is the source of many common errors in speech. Frequently the past participle is incorrectly used where the past tense is needed. We must be careful to use the proper form until its use becomes habitual.

EXERCISE 62

Fill the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs of which the present tense is given in parenthesis. Consult the list of principal parts on page 130.

1. I —— him when he —— the work. (*see, begin*)
2. Do you think that spring has —— ? (*come*)
3. We —— our leave after we had —— supper. (*take, eat*)
4. Will has —— off the shed. (*fall*)
5. The birds will have —— south before the lake has ——. (*fly, freeze*)
6. Has the bell ——? Yes, it —— before I —— my theme. (*ring, write*)
7. John —— nearly all the way, but the man had —— before John arrived. (*run, go*)
8. We have —— that horse, but I have never —— behind this one. (*drive, ride*)
9. Some one has —— my book and —— it. (*take, tear*)
10. The poor fellow's shoes were —— out, so he —— them away. (*wear, throw*)

LESSON 63

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB BE

Principal Parts

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
am	was	been

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I am	We are
2. You are	You are
3. He is	They are

Past Tense

1. I was	We were
2. You were	You were
3. He was	They were

Future Tense

1. I shall be	We shall be
2. You will be	You will be
3. He will be	They will be

Present Perfect Tense

1. I have been	We have been
2. You have been	You have been
3. He has been	They have been

Past Perfect Tense

1. I had been	We had been
2. You had been	You had been
3. He had been	They had been

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

Singular	*Plural*
1. I shall have been	We shall have been
2. You will have been	You will have been
3. He will have been	They will have been

Notice that *shall* is used in the first person and *will* in the second and third persons.

Subjunctive Mood

These forms are usually preceded by *if*, *though*, or *lest*.

PRESENT TENSE

1. I be	We be
2. You be	You be
3. He be	They be

PAST TENSE

1. I were	We were
2. You were	You were
3. He were	They were

The present perfect and past perfect tenses of the subjunctive are the same as the corresponding tenses of the indicative, except that the form for the third person, singular number, of the present perfect tense is *he have been*.

Imperative Mood

PRESENT TENSE

2. Be (you)	Be (you)

Infinitives

PRESENT	PRESENT PERFECT
To be	To have been

Participles

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PERFECT
Being	Been	Having been

Gerunds

PRESENT	PAST
Being	Having been

The old forms of the second person singular with *thou* are found chiefly in poetry and in solemn language. They are:

Indicative

PRESENT	Thou art
PAST	Thou wast *or* wert
FUTURE	Thou wilt (*or* shalt) be
PRESENT PERFECT	Thou hast been
PAST PERFECT	Thou hadst been
FUTURE PERFECT	Thou wilt (*or* shalt) have been

EXERCISE 63

Learn and recite the complete conjugation of the verb be.

LESSON 64

CONJUGATION OF SEE IN THE SIMPLE FORM

Principal Parts

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
see	saw	seen

ACTIVE VOICE

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I see	We see
2. You see	You see
3. He sees	They see

Past Tense

1. I saw	We saw
2. You saw	You saw
3. He saw	They saw

Future Tense

1. I shall see	We shall see
2. You will see	You will see
3. He will see	They will see

Present Perfect Tense

1. I have seen	We have seen
2. You have seen	You have seen
3. He has seen	They have seen

Past Perfect Tense

1. I had seen	We had seen
2. You had seen	You had seen
3. He had seen	They had seen

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have seen	We shall have seen
2. You will have seen	You will have seen
3. He will have seen	They will have seen

Subjunctive Mood

PRESENT TENSE

Singular	*Plural*
1. I see	We see
2. You see	You see
3. He see	They see

The past, present perfect, and past perfect tenses of the subjunctive are the same as the corresponding tenses of the indicative, except that the form for the third person, singular number, of the present perfect tense is *he have seen.*

Imperative Mood

PRESENT TENSE

2. See (you) See (you)

Infinitives

PRESENT	PRESENT PERFECT
To see	To have seen

Participles

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PERFECT
seeing	seen	having seen

Gerunds

PRESENT	PAST
seeing	having seen

PASSIVE VOICE

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I am seen	We are seen
2. You are seen	You are seen
3. He is seen	They are seen

Past Tense

1. I was seen	We were seen
2. You were seen	You were seen
3. He was seen	They were seen

Future Tense

1. I shall be seen	We shall be seen
2. You will be seen	You will be seen
3. He will be seen	They will be seen

Present Perfect Tense

1. I have been seen	We have been seen
2. You have been seen	You have been seen
3. He has been seen	They have been seen

Past Perfect Tense

1. I had been seen	We had been seen
2. You had been seen	You had been seen
3. He had been seen	They had been seen

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have been seen	We shall have been seen
2. You will have been seen	You will have been seen
3. He will have been seen	They will have been seen

Subjunctive Mood

PRESENT TENSE

Singular	*Plural*
1. I be seen	We be seen
2. You be seen	You be seen
3. He be seen	They be seen

PAST TENSE

1. I were seen	We were seen
2. You were seen	You were seen
3. He were seen	They were seen

The present perfect and past perfect tenses of the subjunctive are the same as the corresponding tenses of the indicative, except that the form for the third person, singular number, of the present perfect tense is *he have been seen.*

Imperative Mood

2. Be (you) seen	Be (you) seen

Participles

PRESENT	PERFECT
Being seen	Seen, having been seen

Infinitives

PRESENT	PERFECT
To be seen	To have been seen

NOTE. The participial form *having been seen* is sometimes called the *phrasal past participle.*

EXERCISE 64

Learn and recite the complete conjugation of the verb see.

LESSON 65

SPECIAL FORMS OF THE VERB

The **emphatic** form of the verb asserts more strongly than the ordinary, or simple, form. It is made by prefixing *do* or *did* to the present infinitive without the *to;* as, I *do see,* I *did see.* The emphatic form is used only in the present and past tenses, indicative mood, and in the imperative.

The **progressive** form of the verb represents the action as going on at the time referred to by the tense. It is made by using forms of the verb *be* with the present participle; as, I *am seeing,* He *was seeing,* You *have been seeing.*

In asking questions, we change the verb to the **interrogative** form. For example, the future form, *I shall write,* in a question becomes, *Shall I write?* The past form, *He walked,* in a question becomes *Did he walk?*

In **negative** sentences, the auxiliaries *do* and *did* are used in the present and past tenses; as, He *did* not *walk.*

In speaking and writing informally, we use certain **contractions** of the verbs; as, *can't* for *can not, you're* for *you are.* The apostrophe indicates that letters have been omitted.

It is important to remember that

1. *Doesn't* stands for *does not* and should always be used with pronouns of the third person singular.

RIGHT	WRONG
He *doesn't* speak distinctly.	He don't speak distinctly.

2. Contractions that end in *n't* express a negative idea. It is incorrect to use another negative in the sentence, for that gives a *double negative.*

RIGHT	WRONG
He *hasn't* said *anything.*	He hasn't said nothing.
He *has* said *nothing.*	

3. The contractions for *you are* and *they are* are *you're* and *they're.* Do not omit the apostrophe or write *your,* when you intend to use a verb form

EXERCISE 65

1. Give the principal parts of these verbs:
go come do eat take write begin fell ring run speak

2. Use in a sentence each of the verb forms in Ex. 1.

3. Give the present tense, indicative mood, active voice of the verb *love.*

4. Give the present tense, subjunctive mood, active voice of *walk.*

5. Write a synopsis in the first person of the indicative mood, passive voice of *choose.*

6. Give the past tense, indicative mood, active voice, progressive form of *see.*

7. Give the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, emphatic form of *see.*

LESSON 66

AGREEMENT OF THE VERB

1. The verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

RIGHT	WRONG
You *were* there, Alice.	You was there. (*Person wrong*)
Mary and George *have* gone.	Mary and George has gone. (*Number wrong*)

2. When a verb has two or more subjects connected by *and*, it must have the plural form to agree with them.

A pronoun must have the plural form to agree with two or more antecedents connected by *and*.

RIGHT	WRONG
Poverty and obscurity *oppress* him who thinks that *they are* oppressive.	Poverty and obscurity oppresses him who thinks that it is oppressive.

3. When several singular subjects are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately, and the verb is singular.

RIGHT	WRONG
Every green leaf and every blade of grass *seems* grateful.	Every green leaf and every blade of grass seem grateful.

4. When a verb has two or more singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor*, it must have the singular

form to agree with them. A similar rule applies to pronouns.

RIGHT	WRONG
Either the president or his secretary *was* responsible.	Either the president or his secretary were responsible.

EXERCISE 66

Supply the correct verb form in each blank space, and tell which of the above rules applies:

1. None of the girls —— at home.

2. Health, strength, and happiness —— from right living.

3. Time and tide —— for no man. (Use a form of the verb *wait*.)

4. The work of Sir Walter Scott and his noble character —— endeared him to every one.

5. Each act and each word of ours —— worth our thought.

6. I said to my friend, "You —— too hasty." (*Past tense*)

7. Each man of all those soldiers —— glad to fight for his country. (*Past tense*)

8. Neither the lion nor the mouse —— able to help ——. (For the second blank, use the compound personal pronoun.)

LESSON 67

THE USE OF SHALL AND WILL

To express simple future time, the auxiliary *shall* is used in the first person and *will* in the second and the third; but when the person speaking determines or

promises, he uses *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third.

Simple Future		Determination or Promise	
Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
I shall	We shall	I will	We will
You will	You will	You shall	You shall
He will	They will	He shall	They shall

Examples. I shall be twelve next March. (Simple *futurity;* no determination expressed.)

You will find it on the table. (Simple *futurity.*)

Mr. Dixon will find the book for you. (Simple *futurity.*)

I will overcome that habit, no matter how much effort it requires. (*Determination* is expressed.)

You shall have a fountain pen on your birthday. (A *promise* is made.)

You shall do that work even if it is disagreeable. (The *determination* of the speaker is expressed.)

He shall pay you every penny. (*Determination.*)

The meek shall inherit the earth. (A *promise* is made.)

In a question, we use the auxiliary that is expected in the answer.

Examples. Shall you go? (Answer: I shall go. Simple *futurity.*)

Will he be able to come? (Answer: He will be able to come. Simple *futurity.*)

Will you go next? (Answer: I will go next. A *promise* is made.)

Will I recognize him when I see him? (Answer: You will. Simple *futurity.*)

Should and *would,* the past tenses of *shall* and *will,* are used in the same way as *shall* and *will.*

EXERCISE 67

I. *Write three sentences using*

1. *Shall* in the first person.
2. *Will* in the first person.
3. *Shall* in the second person.
4. *Shall* in the third person.
5. *Will* in the second person.
6. *Will* in the third person.

II. *Use the correct form of the verb* (shall *or* will) *in the blanks of these sentences:*

1. I —— arrive on the two-o'clock train.
2. The captain says that we —— probably be in port to-morrow.
3. I —— not accept such an excuse.
4. You —— do as I have commanded.
5. You —— not be disappointed again.
6. He —— be brought to justice, if I live long enough.
7. I —— have a large bill to pay, if I am not careful.
8. I —— be very grateful to you if you —— do me this favor.
9. We —— have finished by noon.
10. You —— help us very much by remaining.
11. He says he thinks he —— not go.
12. Saturday —— be the last day that you can register.
13. —— you come at one o'clock, please?
14. —— I tell him to come at the same time?
15. —— the men be able to finish to-day?

LESSON 68

REVIEW OF VERBS

EXERCISE 68

Give the voice, mood, tense, person, and number of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. It was the schooner Hesperus
   That sailed the wintry sea;
   And the skipper had taken his little daughter
   To bear him company.

2. Scrooge took his melancholy dinner in his usual melancholy tavern.

3. "You'll want all day to-morrow, I suppose," said Scrooge.

4. If this be treason, make the most of it.

5. I am going, O my people,
   On a long and distant journey.

6. At the end of this week, I shall have been in school four years.

7. If I were you, I would try that.

8. After the meeting, my grandfather and I took a walk.

9. Be still, sad heart, and cease repining;
   Behind the clouds is the sun still shining.

10. Then we shall have done all that can be done.

LESSON 69

THE PROPER USE OF THE VERBS LAY, LIE, SIT, SET

We may speak of *laying* or *setting* something down, or may say that something is *laid* or is *set;* but we can

not speak of *lying* or *sitting* something, or of something being *lain* or *sat*.

Set is generally transitive; *sit* always intransitive.

Set, in some of its meanings, is used without an object; as, The sun *set;* He *set* out on a journey.

Lay is transitive; *lie*, intransitive.

Lay, the present of the first verb, and *lay*, the past of *lie*, are easily distinguished by the difference in meaning and in the time expressed.

Read carefully these sentences in which different forms of these verbs are used correctly:

1. *Lay* aside your work.
2. *Lie* down and rest.
3. I *laid* aside my work.
4. I *lay* down and rested.
5. I have *laid* aside my work.
6. I have *lain* down.
7. *Set* the watch.
8. *Sit* down a while.
9. I *set* the watch.
10. I *sat* down.
11. I have *set* the watch.
12. I have *sat* down a while.
13. The work was *laid* aside.
14. I was *lying* down, resting.
15. The watch was *set* by the town clock.
16. She was *sitting* on the stile.
17. The hen *sits* on her eggs.
18. She *lay* down each day for a nap.
19. The land of dreams *lies* between sleeping and waking.

EXERCISE 69

Remember that the use of correct or incorrect language is a habit. You must form the habit of using the right expression, and you will have to watch yourself closely until the habit is formed. Have you used any of the following verbs incorrectly in your speech?

Write these sentences, filling each blank with the correct form of the verb. Then read the sentences aloud.

1. I —— the best I could. (*do*)
2. When I —— home, I found the fire out. (*come*)
3. My father has —— to California. (*go*)
4. The hen —— an egg in the hayloft. (*lay* or *lie?*)
5. My aunt —— down and stayed half an hour. (*sit* or *set?*)
6. Mother has —— a note to the teacher to explain my absence. (*write*)
7. That stone has —— in the road for a week. (*lie* or *lay?*)
8. The rain had ——. (*fall*)
9. The linen was —— away in lavender. (*lie* or *lay?*)
10. He —— as if he were nearly starved. (*eat*)
11. Many people were —— down in the street by the shock of the earthquake. (*throw*)
12. The houses for miles around were —— and many windows were ——. (*shake, break*)
13. The big elm tree in front of the house was —— up by the roots. (*tear*)
14. He has —— deep of all knowledge. (*drink*)

15. They —— work on the bridge last year. (*begin*)

16. Many of the birds have already —— south. (*fly*)

17. When Peary —— back from the North Pole, he was received with great honor. (*come*)

18. They should have —— their seats more quietly; the concert had ——. (*take, begin*)

19. The canoe was —— from the boathouse last night. (*steal*)

20. A great crowd —— the man leap into the river. (*see*)

21. I am sorry I —— it. (*do*)

22. Dot —— the kettle on the hob. (*sit* or *set?*)

23. "I have —— on that throne so long," said the king, "that I am really very tired of it." (*sit* or *set?*)

24. Carter was unanimously —— football captain. (*choose*)

25. The fairy godmother acted as if she —— all about it. (*know*)

26. Feather beds should be well ——. (*shake*)

27. He had to walk five miles to town because his bicycle was ——. (*break*)

LESSON 70

ERRORS OF SPEECH

Error. I have got that book at home.

This is wrong because *have*, alone, asserts possession. *Got*, used in the sense of *obtained*, is correct; as, I have just *got* the book.

ERROR. There is many mistakes in my composition.

This is wrong because the verb should agree with its plural subject, *mistakes*.

ERROR. It ain't there. Ain't I next?

Ain't is not in good use. The sentences should be, "It is not there" or "It isn't there"; "Am I not next?"

ERROR. I, Henry, and you have been chosen.

Politeness requires that you should mention first the one spoken to, then the one spoken of, and yourself last.

Be careful, also, not to use *I* as the object of a verb or a preposition, or *me* as the subject of a verb.

EXERCISE 70

I. *Correct the following miscellaneous errors and give reasons for the corrections you make:*

1. She give us four apples.
2. Henry don't like to practice.
3. They called John and I.
4. I saw a man which had been in the European War.
5. I hoped to completely finish the book to-day.
6. My cousin has got red hair.
7. I couldn't hear nothing where I set.
8. If I was you, I would accept the offer.
9. Us boys had a picnic.
10. We saw them girls there.
11. At the head of the line was George and him.
12. Aren't there any more wood?

II. *Study the general summary of* ERRORS OF SPEECH *on page 296.*

LESSON 71

ANALYSIS; PARSING VERBS

WRITTEN PARSING: VERBS. The Yankee, selling his farm, wanders away to seek new lands.

CLASSIFICATION		MODIFICATION					SYNTAX
Verbs	*Kind*	*Voice*	*Mood*	*Tense*	*Num.*	*Per.*	
selling[1]	Par., Ir., Tr.	Ac.	.....	Pres.	.....	.....	Mod. of *Yankee*
wanders	Reg., Int.	.....	Ind.	"	Sing.	3d	Pred. of *Yankee*
to seek[1]	Inf., Ir., Tr.	Ac.	.....	"	.....	.....	Mod. of *wanders*

[1] Participles and infinitives have no person or number.

EXERCISE 71

Analyze the following sentences and parse the verbs:

1. Be not overcome of evil, but overcome evil with good.

2. Ring out, wild bells, to the wild sky!

3. Help me, Cassius, or I sink!

4. Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction?

5. Keep the golden mean between saying too much and saying too little.

6. Thy mercy, O Lord, is in the heavens, and thy faithfulness reacheth unto the clouds.

7. The rain descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew, and beat upon that house.

8. Why stand we here idle?

9. The heavens declare His righteousness, and all the people see His glory.

10. Good health and good sense are two of life's greatest blessings.

11. Without some green vegetables, the body could not keep healthy.

12. The world may be divided into three kingdoms—the animal, the vegetable, and the mineral.

13. The blending of the seven prismatic colors produces white light.

14. Soap bubbles, when exposed to light, exhibit colored rings.

LESSON 72

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

When I say, "*red silk flag*," the words *red* and *silk* modify the word *flag* by telling the kind, and restrict the word to flags of that kind.

When I say, "*this flag, yonder flag, one flag*," the words *this*, *yonder*, and *one* do not tell the kind, but simply point out or number, limiting the word *flag* to the flag pointed out or numbered.

Adjectives of the first class describe by giving a quality, and so are called **descriptive adjectives.**

Adjectives of the second class limit by pointing out or numbering, and so are called **limiting adjectives.**

NOTE. Limiting adjectives are also called *definitive adjectives.*

An adjective is a word used to modify a substantive.

A descriptive adjective is one that modifies by expressing quality.

A limiting adjective is one that modifies by pointing out, numbering, or denoting quantity.

There are two classes of descriptive adjectives, proper and common.

Proper adjectives are derived from proper nouns; as, French, Austrian. Proper adjectives begin with **capital** letters.

Common adjectives are not derived from proper nouns; as, windy, manly, good, bad.

The classes of limiting adjectives are articles, pronominal adjectives, and numerals.

The articles are *the*, *a*, and *an*. *The* is the **definite article**, and *a* and *an* are the **indefinite articles.**

Pronominal adjectives are words which are used sometimes as substantives and sometimes as adjectives. If their function in any sentence is that of a substantive, they are pronouns. In sentences where they are used as adjectives, they are called pronominal adjectives.

Classes of Pronominal Adjectives

Possessive: my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, whose.
Demonstrative: this, that, *etc.*
Interrogative: what, which, *etc.*
Relative: which, whose.
Indefinite: some, any, no, every, each, other, neither, *etc.*

Intensive: very.
Identifying: same

When the possessive pronominal adjective stands in the predicate, the forms are *mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs,* and *whose,* like those of the possessive pronoun.

A numeral adjective tells how many or in what order. If it tells how many, it is a **cardinal** numeral; as, *ten* men. If it tells in what order, it is an **ordinal** numeral; as the *tenth* man.

EXERCISE 72

Classify the adjectives in these sentences, remembering that the function of the word decides whether it is an adjective or a pronoun. *Select the nouns that are used adjectively.*

1. Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day
   Stands tiptoe on the misty mountain tops.
2. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen
   And waste its sweetness on the desert air.
3. So they took the little fir from its place, carried it in joyous procession to the edge of the glade, and laid it on the sledge.
4. Withered leaves still clung to the branches of the oak—torn and faded banners of the departed summer.
5. Patience is the best remedy for every trouble.
6. We always have the same trouble when we land on that side of the pier.
7. What ship is that?
8. There is a Power whose care
   Teaches thy way along that pathless coast.
9. I was bred and born
   Not three hours' travel from this very place.

10. He that is slow to anger is better than the mighty.

11. One blast upon his bugle horn
Were worth a thousand men.

12. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested.

13. Confucius is the most famous of Chinese philosophers.

14. To thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.

15. For the first time, I read that chapter of American history.

LESSON 73

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives have but one modification—comparison.

Comparison is a modification of the adjective to express different degrees of quality.

NOTE. Different degrees of quantity, also, may be expressed by comparison.

The **positive degree** expresses the simple quality.

The **comparative degree** expresses a greater or a less degree of the quality.

The **superlative degree** expresses the greatest or the least degree of the quality.

Adjectives are **regularly** compared by adding **er** to the positive to form the comparative, and **est** to the positive to form the superlative.

Example.	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
	dark	darker	darkest

Adjectives of two or more syllables are often compared by prefixing *more* and *most*. To express diminution, we prefix *less* and *least*.

Examples. beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.
attractive, less attractive, least attractive.

Often an adjective may be compared in either of the two ways; as, lovely, lovelier, loveliest; lovely, more lovely, most lovely. Of the two forms of comparison, it is better to use the one that is more easily pronounced and more agreeable to the ear.

Some adjectives are compared irregularly. Learn these forms:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
little	less	least
much, many	more	most

Most limiting adjectives and many descriptive adjectives cannot be compared, as their meaning will not admit of different degrees. For instance, *unanimous* means by the consent of all; consequently no act can be described as *more unanimous*.

EXERCISE 73

Compare such of the following adjectives as can be compared. If necessary, consult the dictionary for spelling.

tame	two-wheeled	mad	any	holy
warm	amiable	witty	that	thin
one	vertical	greedy	common	pretty
brilliant	high	hot	polite	decided

LESSON 74

CLASSES OF ADVERBS

In the sentence "His task was done quickly," the meaning of the verb *was done* is modified by the word *quickly*, telling how the task was done. *Quickly* is one of the class of words called **adverbs.**

"Franklin lived to be a very old man." Here the adverb *very* modifies the adjective *old.*

"The witness answered quite frankly." Here *frankly* is an adverb modifying the verb *answered,* and *frankly* is in turn modified by another adverb, *quite.*

An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

Adverbs of **time** answer the question, When?

EXAMPLES. early, hereafter, now, often, soon, presently. He will come *soon.*

Adverbs of **place** are those that generally answer the question, Where?

EXAMPLES. away, back, elsewhere, hence, out, within. I will go *away.*

Adverbs of **degree** are those that generally answer the question, To what extent?

EXAMPLES. exceedingly, hardly, quite, sufficiently, too, very. The tea is *very* hot.

Adverbs of **manner** are those that generally answer the question, In what way?

EXAMPLES. plainly, so, thus, well, not. He spoke *plainly*.

Adverbs of **cause** are those that generally answer the question, Why?

EXAMPLES. hence, therefore, why. The sun is down, *therefore* it is dark. *Why* are you late?

Relative adverbs join clauses. They belong to the five classes given above, but in addition to their modifying function they connect clauses.

EXAMPLES. He died *as* he had lived.

The leaves fall *when* autumn comes.

This line is not straight; *hence* it does not measure the shortest distance between the points which it joins.

Interrogative adverbs are those used in asking questions. They belong to the five classes of adverbs named above.

EXAMPLES. *How* can this be done?

Where is the source of this river?

When was the battle of Gettysburg fought?

Adverbs may be used **independently**; as,

Now, there must be an error here.

Adverbs may **modify a phrase**; as,

He came *just* in time.

Adverbs may **modify a preposition;** as,

It went *far* beyond the mark.

Adverbs are often used to make a statement **negative;** as,

Reënforcements did *not* arrive in time.

No and *yes*, used in answering questions, show how the thought presented is received, and may be classed with adverbs of manner. They seem to modify words omitted in the answer but contained in the question; as, "Did you see him? No." The *no* is equivalent to "I did *not* see him."

"Will you go? Yes." The force of *yes* may be seen by substituting *certainly*. "Will you go? Certainly." That is, "*Certainly* I will go," or "I will *certainly* go."

As *no* and *yes* represent or suggest complete answers, they may be called **sentence words.**

EXERCISE 74

Point out the adverbs in these sentences and tell to what class or classes each belongs:

1. The phantom slowly, gravely, and silently approached.

2. Nobody ever stopped him in the street to ask, with gladsome looks, "My dear Scrooge, how are you?"

3. The bell swung so softly at the outset that it scarcely made a sound; but soon it rang out loudly, and so did every bell in the house.

4. In came all the people, one after another; some shyly, some boldly, some gracefully, some awkwardly, some pushing, some pulling; in they all came, anyhow and everyhow.

5. All Scrooge could make out was that it was still very foggy and extremely cold, and that there was no noise of people running to and fro.

6. "Spirit," said Scrooge submissively, "conduct me where you will."

7. The slow potatoes, bubbling up, knocked loudly at the saucepan-lid, to be let out and peeled.

8. Martha did not like to see her father disappointed, if it were only in joke.

9. The people were by this time pouring forth, as he had seen them with the Ghost of Christmas Present.

LESSON 75

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

The only modification of adverbs is **comparison.**

Some adverbs form their comparative and superlative by adding **er** and **est** to the positive.

EXAMPLES. soon, sooner, soonest.
fast, faster, fastest.

Adverbs of more than one syllable generally form their comparative and superlative by prefixing *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*, to the positive.

EXAMPLES. slowly, more slowly, most slowly.
decidedly, more decidedly, most decidedly.

Many adverbs cannot be compared.

EXAMPLES. where, how, now, there, when.

Some adverbs are compared irregularly. Learn these forms:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
badly, ill	worse	worst
well	better	best
little	less	least
much	more	most
far	farther	farthest

EXERCISE 75

Point out the adverbs, tell of what degree each adverb is, and compare it, if it can be compared:

1. The tortoise plodded steadily on and won the race.

2. The hare ran as fast as he could, but he was so far behind that he could not catch up with the tortoise.

3. It often happens in this way that the one who goes on slowly and surely wins the race.

4. Thanksgiving Day is usually the last Thursday in November.

5. The Pilgrims received thankfully the small blessings that came to them during their first year in America.

6. Few people keep Thanksgiving nowadays as joyfully and as sincerely as the Pilgrims did.

7. It sometimes seems that the more people have, the less grateful they are.

LESSON 76

THE CORRECT USE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

1. When **two** things or groups of things are compared, the **comparative** degree is used. When **more than two** are compared, the **superlative** is used.

Right	Wrong
George is the *older* of the two boys.	George is the oldest of the two boys.
The river road is the *shortest* of the three.	The river road is the shorter of the three.

2. Adjectives should not be doubly compared.

Right	Wrong
He suffered the *keenest* sorrow.	He suffered the most keenest sorrow.

3. Do not use adjectives and adverbs extravagantly.

Right	Wrong
The game was interesting.	The game was awfully interesting.
We had a delightful vacation.	We had a perfectly delightful vacation.

4. Do not use the pronoun *them* for the pronominal adjective *those*.

Right	Wrong
Where are all *those* people going?	Where are all them people going?

5. Do not use adjectives for adverbs.

Right	Wrong
He writes *well*.	He writes good.

6. Do not use the adverbs *here* and *there* as adjectives.

Right	Wrong
That book is mine.	That there book is mine.
The book that you have *there* is mine.	

7. Do not use double negatives.

RIGHT	WRONG
I did *nothing.*	I did not do nothing.

EXERCISE 76

I. *Correct the following errors and give reasons why each sentence is wrong:*

1. The baby looked awfully sweet.
2. He was the most wildest savage of the lot.
3. Henry is the tallest of the two, but George is the oldest.
4. Did you eat all them apples?
5. He chose a more humbler part.
6. Which is the more northerly, Maine, Oregon, or Minnesota?
7. Which do you prefer better?
   Prefer=like better.
8. The paper was written careful.
9. I thought that Mary was the brightest of the two.
10. He ain't ever coming back no more.
11. They couldn't be no more happier.
12. The soldier was wounded bad.
13. You don't care nothing for nobody but yourself.
14. This here paper is torn.
15. I hain't got no paint brush.
16. He is best of the two.
17. He visited the most principal cities.
18. This plan was worser than the others.

II. *Study the general summary of* ERRORS OF SPEECH *on page 296.*

LESSON 77

CONJUNCTIONS

"The stars look down upon the roofs of the living *and* upon the graves of the dead, *but neither* the living *nor* the dead are conscious of their gaze."

Here *and*, *but*, *neither*, and *nor* connect phrases and clauses of equal rank, or order. Two or more phrases or clauses of equal rank are called **coördinate,** and the conjunctions connecting them are **coördinating conjunctions.** Clauses connected by coördinating conjunctions may be independent or subordinate, but the clauses connected are of *equal rank.*

"At the burning of Moscow, it seemed *as* (it would seem) *if* the heavens were lighted up *that* the nations might behold the scene."

Here *as*, *if*, and *that* connect each a lower, or subordinate, clause to a clause of higher rank, and hence are called **subordinating conjunctions.** One clause may be independent and the other subordinate, or both may be subordinate but of *unequal rank.*

"I will help you with your work *if* I can find a time *when* I can leave my own."

If I can find a time is a subordinate clause depending upon the independent clause, *I will help you with your work.* The last clause, *when I can leave my own*, is also a subordinate clause, but it is still lower in rank than the clause introduced by *if*, because it depends on that clause for its meaning and modifies a word in it, *time.*

Conjunctions that are used in pairs (such as *either . . . or, both . . . and, not only . . . but also*) are called **correlative conjunctions.**

As if, in case that, and similar groups of connective words are called **compound conjunctions,** in distinction from the **simple** conjunctions.

A conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, or clauses.

Coördinating conjunctions are such as connect words, phrases, and clauses of the same rank.

Subordinating conjunctions are such as connect clauses of different ranks.

Like is not a conjunction. It is incorrect to use *like* in place of *as* or *as if* to connect a subordinate with a principal clause.

Right	Wrong
It looked *as if* he would win.	It looked like he would win.

There are connectives other than conjunctions. Relative pronouns and relative adverbs also connect clauses. The following examples distinguish between conjunctions proper and relative adverbs and relative pronouns.

Conjunctions	Relative Adverbs	Relative Pronouns
although	also	that
and	consequently	what
because	how	which
but	when	who
if	where	
neither . . . nor	why	

EXERCISE 77

Using appropriate connectives, change the following compound sentences to complex sentences, and then analyze them:

1. Many receive advice, few profit by it.
2. Vessels large may venture more,
   But little boats should keep near shore.
3. The world is a wheel, and it will all come round right.
4. A faithful and good servant is a real godsend; but truly 'tis a rare bird in the land.
5. Let down the curtain; the farce is done.
6. Cannon balls may aid the truth,
   But thought's a weapon stronger.
7. Coal and diamonds seem to have little in common, but they are both carbon.
8. A deep silence fell upon the crowd, and Abraham Lincoln stepped forward.
9. The people of Boston emptied the tea into the harbor; they objected to taxation without representation.

LESSON 78

PREPOSITIONS

A preposition is a word that introduces a phrase and shows the relation of its object to the word modified by the phrase.

Some of the prepositions in common use are:

aboard	after	among	below	beyond
about	against	around	beneath	but
above	along	at	beside	by
according to	amid	before	besides	concerning
across	amidst	behind	between	down

during	in	past	to	unto
ere	inside	save	toward	up
except	into	since	towards	upon
excepting	of	through	under	with
for	on	throughout	underneath	within
from	over	till	until	without

Concerning, during, excepting, notwithstanding, pending, regarding, respecting, and *touching* are participles in form and sometimes are used as participles. But in most cases the participial meaning has faded out of these words, and they express mere relations. Therefore, they are generally prepositions.

Many prepositions become adverbs when the noun which ordinarily follows them is omitted; as, He rode *past.* He stands *above.*

The phrases *aboard of, according to, along with, as to, because of, from among, from under,* and *instead of* are called **compound prepositions,** in distinction from the **simple** prepositions.

EXERCISE 78

Point out the prepositions in the following paragraph:

One of the most terrorizing spectacles with which the heavens ever caused the hearts of men to quake occurred on the night of November 13, 1833. On that night North America, which faced the storm, was under a continual rain of fire, from about ten o'clock in the evening until daybreak. The fragments of a comet had struck the earth. But the meaning of what had happened was not discovered until long afterward. To the astronomers who, with astonishment no less than that of other people, watched the wonderful scene, it was an unparalleled shower of meteors.

GARRETT P. SERVISS

LESSON 79

INTERJECTIONS

An interjection is a word used to express strong or sudden feeling.

Interjections are exclamations without grammatical relations to any word in the sentence. Any part of speech may be used as an interjection; as,

Quick! I fear it is too late.

EXERCISE 79

I. *Point out the interjections:*

1. Farewell! a long farewell, to all my greatness!
2. What! wouldst thou have a serpent sting thee twice?
3. Hush! hark! what noise is that?
4. Hark, hark! the lark at heaven's gate sings.
5. Get you hence, sirrah; saucy fellow, hence!
6. Oh, Captain! my Captain! our fearful trip is done.
7. Oh, dear! do you remember the mysteries we boys used to invent?

II. 1. Name the eight parts of speech.
2. Define each of the parts of speech.
3. In sentences give examples of each part of speech.

LESSON 80

WORDS USED AS VARIOUS PARTS OF SPEECH

It frequently happens that the same word is one part of speech in one sentence and another part of speech

in another sentence where the word is used differently. *The function of a word in a sentence determines what part of speech it is.* We have seen that in a sentence like "This is too much," *this* is a pronoun, while in "This morning was very clear," *this* is an adjective. Almost any word is capable of being used as more than one part of speech.

"The lake is *round*." Here *round* is an adjective. "The watchman was making his *round*"; here *round* is a noun. "He ran *round* the house"; here it is a preposition. "We shall *round* the point by sunset"; here it is a verb. "The wheel turns *round*"; here it is an adverb.

EXERCISE 80

I. *Name the function and the part of speech of each word in italics:*

1. We read many books during the *summer* vacation.
2. Where are you going this *summer?*
3. Williams had decided to *summer* in Maine.
4. Send me the *book* by mail.
5. He went to *book* passage to Southampton.
6. You can secure it of any *book* dealer.
7. All *but* him had fled.
8. Knowledge comes, *but* wisdom lingers.
9. *But* me no *but's*.
10. Life is *but* a dream.
11. We meet *but* to part.
12. He stood the *test*.
13. This will *test* your knowledge of woodcraft.
14. A *test* case was made of it,

15. *Iron* is the most useful metal.

16. Byron has been called "physician of the *iron* age."

17. *Iron* out the wrinkles.

II. *Construct sentences containing these words as different parts of speech:*

answer	equal	last	sound	under
back	fall	outside	spring	water
better	fan	paper	stone	white
calm	fast	part	table	wrong
down	ink	past	that	walk

PART TWO
COMPOSITION

PART TWO: COMPOSITION

LESSON 1

A STOCK OF WORDS

The more words you know and can use, the nearer you can come to saying what you wish to say. If a person knows only a few words, he can talk and write about only a few things. Frequently he cannot say what he means because he does not know just the right word to express his meaning. It is necessary, therefore, to have a large stock of words. This stock of words is our **vocabulary.**

How can we increase our vocabulary? We learn words by hearing other people use them and by finding them in our reading. When we come upon a new word, however, it is not added to our stock until we understand it and can use it ourselves. When the meaning of a new word is not immediately clear to us from the way it is used by the speaker or writer, we must learn its meaning. We can do this by asking some one who knows or by looking up the word in the dictionary.

Every one who desires to learn to write and talk well should use the dictionary freely. Whenever you hear or read a new word, look it up in the dictionary and find out all you can about it. Then use the new

word whenever there is opportunity in your conversation or writing.

It is important that you use a reliable and scholarly dictionary and one that has been recently published, for words change in meaning and new words are being continually added to the language. Webster's *New International Dictionary*, the *New Standard Dictionary*, and the *Century Dictionary*, which are the best authorities in the United States, are very large and complete. For final authority on words, you will have to go to the large dictionaries, but for most questions as to unfamiliar words you can use the smaller dictionaries.

The dictionary tells you how to spell the word, how to pronounce it, what its origin is, what part of speech it usually is, and what it means. A word may have several distinct meanings, and the dictionary gives all of these under different numbers. For instance, if you look up the word *monitor* in Webster's *Secondary School Dictionary*, you will find five different meanings.

Suppose we have read the sentence "In this picture Sir Walter Raleigh is shown wearing a *ruff*." If we consult the dictionary for information about *ruff*, we shall find in the *Secondary School Dictionary* three different words spelled and pronounced alike. The third word *ruff* has three meanings. The first of these is "A kind of muslin collar, plaited, crimped, or fluted." This meaning fits the word as used above, and we know that it is the definition we are looking for.

At the bottom of each page of the dictionary is a key explaining how the markings of the letters are to be used as a guide to pronunciation.

EXERCISE 1

In a good dictionary, find the meaning and the pronunciation of the following words. If more than one meaning is given for a word, learn all of them.

1. ruminate
2. pedestrian
3. snaffle
4. blithely
5. minstrel
6. pelf
7. concentered
8. craven (noun)
9. lower-case
10. repertoire
11. sedan chair
12. integrity
13. emissary
14. scuttle
15. tricolor
16. quest
17. waive
18. pneumatic
19. lapidary
20. talisman

LESSON 2

WORD STUDY

EXERCISE 2

Unless you are sure that you know the meaning of each italicized word in the following selection, look it up in the dictionary and be able to give the meaning in class.

Lincoln's Fondness for Measuring

The *pomp* and *circumstance* of the White House itself did not *abate* Mr. Lincoln's fondness for measuring. How deeply rooted this *trait* was, may be gathered from the following *typical* scene, described by one who happened to be present. On one of the President's public audience days, a *stalwart* caller approached Mr. Lincoln awkwardly and managed to explain that, being on a visit to the capital, he desired, before leaving, to see the President and to have the honor of shaking hands with him.

Mr. Lincoln, as he smilingly *complied,* surveyed the big

man from head to foot and said, in his playful way, "I rather think that you have a little the advantage of me in height. You are a taller man than I am."

"I guess not, Mr. President," replied the visitor; "the advantage cannot be on my side."

"Yes, it is," was the *rejoinder*. "I have a pretty good eye for distances, and I think that I cannot be mistaken in the fact of the advantage being slightly with you. I measure six feet three and a half inches in my stockings, and you go, I think, a little beyond that."

As the other still politely *demurred*, Mr. Lincoln said, "It is very easily tested."

Rising from his chair, he placed a book edgewise against the wall just higher than his head. Then turning to his visitor, he bade him "Come under." This the stranger hesitated to do, his countenance the while wearing a bewildered yet half-smiling expression that, we are told, was comical to see.

"Come under, I say," repeated the President in a more *peremptory* tone, and the visitor slowly complied. When Mr. Lincoln, in his turn, stepped under the book, he was found to have fallen a trifle short of the other's measurement.

"There," he said, "it is as I told you. I knew I couldn't be mistaken. I rarely fail in taking a man's true *altitude* by the eye."

ALONZO ROTHSCHILD

LESSON 3

THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS

1. Begin the first word of every sentence with a capital letter.

2. Begin the first word of every line of poetry with a capital letter.

3. Begin the first word of a direct quotation with a capital letter.

A direct quotation is one that gives the exact words of another; as, He said, "Come with me."

4. Begin proper names and words derived from them with capital letters.

5. Use capital letters in writing the words I and O.

6. Begin an abbreviation with a capital letter if the word abbreviated begins with a capital.

EXERCISE 3

I. *Tell why each capital letter is used in the selection on "Lincoln's Fondness for Measuring"* (page 175).

II. *Write these sentences, using capitals where they are needed:*

1. honor and shame from no condition rise;
act well your part, there all the honor lies.
2. the atlantic ocean beat mrs. partington.
3. the question is, "can law make people honest?"
4. the heroic nelson destroyed the french fleet in aboukir bay.
5. at midday, o king, i saw in the way a light from heaven.
6. he sent all further communications to the royal society of london.
7. the associates met at oxford in the rooms of dr. wilkins, who was destined to become a bishop.
8. "ah," he answered, "i fished this brook forty-five years ago. it was in the paradise valley that i first thought of rip van winkle. i wanted to come back again for the sake of old times."

9. many of the villages of mesopotamia are built of second-hand bricks of a very good quality, obtained from the ruins of babylon.

10. every wednesday morning, on entering school, each pupil was expected to lay his exercise on mr. grimshaw's desk; the subject was usually selected by mr. grimshaw himself the monday previous.

11. in december we had two weeks' vacation.

12. the room was filled with mexican pottery.

LESSON 4

WRITING SENTENCES

A frequent fault in compositions is the failure to recognize what is and what is not a sentence. Pupils often punctuate as a sentence what is really only a part of a sentence. For example:

On Saturday we went to a cave. Which is the largest cave in the county. A stream of water flows out of it. And you have to enter the cave in a boat.

The first two expressions ending with periods are really parts of one sentence. The last two sentences sound much better when combined as one sentence. The paragraph should be rewritten thus:

On Saturday we went to a cave, which is the largest in the county. A stream of water flows out of it, and you have to enter the cave in a boat.

Another fault is running two or more sentences to-

gether. The following paragraph fails to show where one sentence leaves off and another begins:

Cooking is the most interesting work that we have at our school once a week we go to the domestic science center and have a lesson in cooking the week before Christmas our lesson was on candy-making I learned to make good fudge and have made it several times since then at home.

This seems to be one sentence. On examining it, we see that the writer has carelessly run together what should be written as four sentences, thus:

Cooking is the most interesting work that we have at our school. Once a week we go to the domestic science center and have a lesson in cooking. The week before Christmas our lesson was on candy-making. I learned to make good fudge and have made it several times since then at home.

Sometimes sentences are strung together with *and's*, making a sentence that is much too long and very awkward. In talking, pupils sometimes join every sentence to the one before it with *and* or *then* or *but*. This bad habit should be overcome. Note the following sentence:

Columbus asked the King of Portugal for aid in his plan to find a water route to India and the king sent out an expedition to see if Columbus was right and if the world was really round and this expedition came back and reported that the plan was impossible and this disgusted Columbus and he left Portugal and went to the court of Spain for aid and here through the influence of Queen Isabella he received the necessary assistance to fit out his expedition.

This long sentence should be broken up into several sentences, and most of the *and's* should be omitted, thus:

Columbus asked the King of Portugal for aid in his plan to find a water route to India. The king sent out an expedition to see if Columbus was right, and if the world was really round. This expedition came back and reported that the plan was impossible. This disgusted Columbus, and he left Portugal and went to the court of Spain for aid. Here, through the influence of Queen Isabella, he received the necessary assistance to fit out his expedition.

Another fault of inexperienced writers is the use of short and choppy sentences. Short, clear sentences are better than long, rambling, and confused ones in which the meaning is doubtful; but sentences need not be so short as in the following example:

Select strong, healthy tomato plants. Prepare the soil well. Make it fine by working. Set them out after all danger of frost is over. Cultivate the plants frequently. Keep the ground fine and loose. Drive a stake from six to eight feet long close to each plant. Trim each plant to one, two, or three main stems. Tie the plants to the stakes.

The passage would be improved if written as follows:

Prepare the soil by working it up and making it fine. Select strong, healthy tomato plants and set them out after all danger of frost is over. Cultivate the plants frequently to keep the ground fine and loose. Drive a stake from six to eight feet long close to each plant. Trim each plant to one, two, or three main stems, and tie them to the stakes.

Be careful not to punctuate a part of a sentence as if it were a whole sentence.

Do not run two or more sentences together.

In speaking and writing, avoid using *and, then,* and *but* too frequently.

Avoid a succession of short, choppy sentences.

EXERCISE 4

Two or three compositions should be written on the blackboard. Study the sentences in these compositions.

Are the sentences too long?

Are they too short and choppy?

Are there any groups of words punctuated as sentences which are not sentences?

Are there any two sentences which could with advantage be combined into one?

Is there a sentence which ought to be separated into two or more sentences?

To the Teacher. It is a good plan to keep on hand a number of old compositions as material for study and correction. Pupils will find the correction of these compositions valuable because the sentences contain errors that have actually occurred in the work of the class. Instead of writing compositions on the board, you may wish to reproduce them with some form of the hectograph, making as many copies as there are pupils in the class.

LESSON 5

THREE LITTLE MASTERPIECES

One of the surest aids to growth in the use of our language is to read the best prose and poetry of English and American literature. The reading of books written by masters of English will enrich your vocabulary and expand your thinking. As a result, you will in time develop the ability to express yourself well both in

speaking and in writing. Study the group of little masterpieces given in this lesson. Each is a noble piece of writing on account of its thought and expression.

At Morning

The day returns and brings us the petty round of irritating concerns and duties. Help us to play the man; help us to perform them with laughter and kind faces; let cheerfulness abound with industry. Give us to go blithely on our business all this day; bring us to our resting beds, weary and content and undishonored; and grant us in the end the gift of sleep.

Robert Louis Stevenson

My Native Land

Breathes there the man, with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
  This is my own, my native land?
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
As home his footsteps he hath turned
  From wandering on a foreign strand?
If such there breathe, go, mark him well;
For him no minstrel raptures swell;
High though his titles, proud his name,
Boundless his wealth as wish can claim,—
Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
The wretch, concentered all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonored, and unsung.

Sir Walter Scott

Opportunity

This I beheld, or dreamed it in a dream:—
There spread a cloud of dust along a plain;
And underneath the cloud, or in it, raged
A furious battle, and men yelled, and swords
Shocked upon swords and shields. A prince's banner
Wavered, then staggered backward, hemmed by foes.
A craven hung along the battle's edge,
And thought, "Had I a sword of keener steel—
That blue blade that the king's son bears,—but this
Blunt thing—!" he snapt and flung it from his hand,
And lowering crept away and left the field.
Then came the king's son, wounded, sore bestead,
And weaponless, and saw the broken sword,
Hilt-buried in the dry and trodden sand,
And ran and snatched it, and with battle-shout
Lifted afresh, he hewed his enemy down
And saved a great cause that heroic day.

Edward Rowland Sill

EXERCISE 5

Commit to memory these three little masterpieces.

LESSON 6

PUNCTUATION

The Period:

1. Place a period after every declarative and every imperative sentence.

2. Place a period after every abbreviation.

The Question Mark:

Place a question mark after every interrogative sentence.

The Exclamation Point:

Place an exclamation point after all exclamatory sentences and expressions.

The Apostrophe:

1. The apostrophe is used to mark the omission of letters; as, Don't wait; it's six o'clock.

2. The apostrophe is used to distinguish the possessive case; as, birds' nests; Ned's horse.

3. The apostrophe is used to form the plural of letters, figures, and characters; as, 2's, *'s, t's.

When it is necessary to divide a word at the end of a line, make the division between two syllables and place a hyphen at the end of the line. (See sentences 2 and 3 on page 185.) Never place a hyphen at the beginning of a line.

Do not divide a word of one syllable. Do not divide plurals formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular (*bushes*, not *bush-es*). Do not divide a word so that a syllable of one letter will be left standing by itself at the end or at the beginning of a line (*among*, not *a-mong; many*, not *man-y*). If you are not sure of the proper division of any word, consult a good dictionary.

EXERCISE 6

Write these sentences, placing periods, question marks, exclamation points, and apostrophes where they belong. Tell why each mark is used.

1. Who killed Cock Robin

2. "What on earth are you a-doin" asked the man, grasping the collar of my jacket

3. "Hullo heres Tom Bailey" shouted Pepper Whitcomb.

4. In Milwaukee, Wis, I met a man whose home had been in Birmingham, Ala, for many years

5. What word is there half of which is ps

6. Doesnt it seem strange that we have had no word from Dr Morris

7. Take more pains in making your 5s and your 7s

8. Is this Sams reel. No, its yours

9. "Well, I dont say so, do I" growled the cockswain "What I say is, when"

10. "When by the powers" cried Silver "Well, now, if you want to know, Ill tell you when"

LESSON 7

VARIETY IN THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES

A letter or a composition sounds much better if the sentences are varied in length and in form, or structure. Variety of sentence structure may be secured in many ways.

An adjective, an adverb, or a participle may be expanded into a phrase or a clause.[1]

[1] If the class has not studied the kinds of clauses and sentences mentioned in this lesson, the teacher may supply the simple explantion that is needed or may refer the pupils to pages 72, 76, 82, and 88 in PART ONE.

A phrase or a clause may be contracted into an adjective, an adverb, or a participle.

An Irish adventurer rose to a high place in the country.
An adventurer from Ireland rose to a high place in the country.
An adventurer who came from Ireland rose to a high place in the country.

He did the work carefully.
He did the work with care.

We returned at sunset.
We returned when the sun was setting.

When he saw me, he stopped.
Seeing me, he stopped.

When night came on, we gave up the chase.
Night coming on, we gave up the chase.

A substantive clause may be contracted.

That he was brave cannot be doubted.
His bravery cannot be doubted.

An adverbial clause may be contracted by the omission of words.

When you are right, go ahead.
When right, go ahead.

An adverbial clause may sometimes be changed to an adjective clause or phrase, or to an adjective.

This man is to be pitied, because he has no friends.
This man, who has no friends, is to be pitied.
This man, without friends, is to be pitied.
This friendless man is to be pitied.

One sentence may sometimes be expanded into two or more.

Two or more sentences may sometimes be contracted into one.

Time waits for no man, and tide waits for no man.
Time and tide wait for no man.

A compound sentence may be formed out of simple sentences.

A compound sentence may be contracted to a simple sentence, or it may be changed into a complex sentence.

Take care of the minutes, and the hours will take care of themselves.

If you take care of the minutes, the hours will take care of themselves.

He is rough, but he is kind.
He is rough but kind.

They have nothing to wear.
They have nothing which they can wear.

Variety is gained by changing the voice of the verb.

The porter refused him admittance.
He was refused admittance by the porter.

EXERCISE 7

Contract the following sentences, and tell what change you have made in the structure of each:

1. Coral animals, when they die, form vast islands of their bodies.

2. Truth, though she may be crushed to earth, will rise again.

3. Error, if he is wounded, writhes in pain and dies among his worshipers.

4. Washington retreated from Long Island because his army was outnumbered.

5. The Gulf Stream reaches Newfoundland before it crosses the Atlantic.

6. If we use household words, we shall be better understood.

7. He grew rich because he attended to business.

8. Philip II built the Armada that he might conquer England.

9. He is foolish because he leaves school so early in life.

10. We are pained when we hear God's name used irreverently.

11. Luther died where he was born.

12. A fish breathes, though it has no lungs.

13. Criminals are punished that society may be safe.

14. Æsop knew that it was not safe to tell kings their faults, and so he hid his meanings in fables.

15. Because he was witty, and because he had shrewd common sense, Æsop became a welcome visitor at the courts of kings.

LESSON 8

VARIETY IN THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES

EXERCISE 8

Expand the following sentences by changing the adjectives, participles, and infinitive phrases into clauses:[1]

[1] For explanation of the infinitive phrase, absolute phrase, and the voice of the verb, in connection with this lesson and the next one, see pages 55, 67, and 122 in PART ONE.

1. A rolling stone gathers no moss.

2. The dog, to gain his private ends,
Went mad, and bit the man.

3. Some people, having lived abroad, undervalue the advantages of their native land.

4. I have many things to tell you.

5. He had an ax to grind.

6. It was a sight to gladden the heart.

Contract the substantive clauses in these sentences:

7. That the caterpillar changes to a butterfly is a curious fact.

8. Everybody thinks that he is a great leader.

9. I believe that he is a foreigner.

10. The governor ordered that the prisoner should be set free.

11. They believe that taxation without representation is unjust.

12. Ulysses hoped that by his trick he might escape going to the Trojan war.

13. We are all anxious that we may make a good impression.

14. He does not know whom he should send.

15. The effect of looking upon the sun is that the eye is blinded.

Vary the following sentences by changing the voice of the verb:

16. The people of Athens named their city for Athena, goddess of wisdom.

17. Harvey, an English physician, discovered the circulation of the blood.

18. His eloquence struck them dumb.

19. They must allow us the privilege of thinking for ourselves.

20. All his friends laughed at him.

21. He was offered a pension by the government.

22. That artful fellow has imposed upon us all.

23. The speaker did not even touch upon this topic.

24. He dropped the matter there and did not refer to it afterward.

25. He was taken care of by his friends.

LESSON 9

VARIETY IN THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES

EXERCISE 9

Contract these compound sentences to simple sentences:

1. Fresh air is a good medicine and sleep is a good medicine.

2. The spirit of the Almighty is within us, the spirit of the Almighty is around us, the spirit of the Almighty is above us.

3. Mirth should be the embroidery of conversation, but it should not be the web.

4. Was movable type in use before Caxton's time, or was it not in use before that time?

5. William the Silent has been likened to Washington, and he has justly been likened to him.

6. It was his kindly face that attracted me; it was not his clothes or his manner that attracted me.

Change these compound sentences to complex sentences without materially changing the sense:

7. Do not allow yourself to become angry and you will soon find that you have little cause to be angry.

8. Govern your passions, or they will govern you.

9. I heard you wished to see me, and I lost no time in coming.

10. He was a man of great intellect, but he always had patience with lesser intellects.

11. He was faithful, and he was rewarded.

12. He found that he could not escape, and so he surrendered.

13. Our friends heard of our coming, and they hastened to meet us.

Expand the participles, the absolute phrases, and the infinitive phrases into clauses:

14. The child, having worn himself out in play, threw himself on the grass.

15. White garments, reflecting the rays of the sun, are cool in summer.

16. Writing carefully, you will be sure to write legibly.

17. The automobile having broken down, we walked six miles to the nearest farmhouse.

18. The bridges having been swept away, we returned.

19. The weather is so warm as to dissolve the snow.

20. He is a fool to waste his time.

21. I shall be happy to hear of your safe arrival.

22. He does not know where to go.

LESSON 10

STUDY OF A POEM

COLUMBUS

Behind him lay the gray Azores,
  Behind the Gates of Hercules;
Before him not the ghost of shores,
  Before him only shoreless seas.
The good mate said: "Now must we pray,
  For lo! the very stars are gone.
Brave Admiral, speak; what shall I say?"
  "Why, say: 'Sail on! sail on! and on!'"

"My men grow mutinous day by day;
  My men grow ghastly wan and weak."
The stout mate thought of home; a spray
  Of salt wave washed his swarthy cheek.
"What shall I say, brave Admiral, say,
  If we sight naught but seas at dawn?"
"Why, you shall say at break of day:
  'Sail on! sail on! sail on! and on!'"

They sailed and sailed as winds might blow,
  Until at last the blanched mate said:
"Why, now not even God would know
  Should I and all my men fall dead.
These very winds forget their way,
  For God from these dread seas is gone.
Now speak, brave Admiral, speak and say—"
  He said: "Sail on! sail on! and on!"

They sailed. They sailed. Then spake the mate:
"This mad sea shows his teeth to-night.
He curls his lip, he lies in wait,
With lifted teeth as if to bite!
Brave Admiral, say but one good word:
What shall we do when hope is gone?"
The words leapt like a flaming sword:
"Sail on! sail on! sail on! and on!"

Then, pale and worn, he paced his deck,
And peered through darkness. Ah, that night
Of all dark nights! And then a speck—
A light! a light! At last a light!
It grew, a starlit flag unfurled!
It grew to be Time's burst of dawn.
He gained a world; he gave that world
Its grandest lesson: "On! sail on!"

JOAQUIN MILLER

EXERCISE 10

Where are the Azores? What is meant by the Gates of Hercules?

"The very stars are gone." As the sailors got farther out into the Atlantic Ocean, the appearance of the heavens changed, and some of the familiar stars were no longer visible.

What is the meaning of *mutinous? Ghastly? Wan?* What part of speech are these words? Give your reasons.

What is the meaning of *swarthy? Blanched?*

"These very winds forget their way." The ships were now in the region of the trade winds, which were strange to the sailors.

Explain lines 2, 3, and 4 in the fourth stanza.

Explain line 5 in the fifth stanza. Explain line 6 in the fifth stanza.

Read the poem so as to bring out its full thought and feeling. Commit it to memory.

LESSON 11

PARAGRAPHS; OUTLINES

Newton and His Dog Diamond

Did you never hear the story of Newton and his little dog Diamond? When Newton was fifty years old, and had been hard at work more than twenty years studying the theory of light, he went out of his chamber one day, leaving his little dog asleep before the fire.

On the table lay a heap of manuscript papers, containing a record of all the discoveries that Newton had made during those twenty years. When his master was gone, up rose little Diamond, jumped upon the table, and overthrew the lighted candle. The papers immediately caught fire.

Just as the destruction was completed, Newton opened the chamber door and perceived that the labors of twenty years were reduced to a heap of ashes. There stood little Diamond, the author of all the mischief. Almost any other man would have sentenced the dog to immediate death. But Newton patted him on the head with his usual kindness, although grief was at his heart. "O Diamond, Diamond!" exclaimed he, "thou little knowest the mischief thou hast done."

Nathaniel Hawthorne, from *Biographical Stories*

This story is divided into three paragraphs. A **paragraph** is a group of sentences expressing what we

have to say on a single division of the subject. You will see that there are three divisions of this story:

1. Newton and his dog.
2. The overturning of the candle.
3. Newton's discovery of his loss.

These three headings, or topics, form the **outline** of the story. Whenever you write anything, it is well first to make an outline. In making it, see that the topics include all you have to say; that no one of them repeats another, even in part; and that they are properly arranged. If you follow the outline as you write, it will help you to arrange your composition in good order and to write good paragraphs.

Suppose you are to write the story of "A Day's Fishing." You may make an outline like this, if it fits the facts you are to tell:

1. The start.
2. Arrival at the fishing place.
3. Our catch.
4. The return home.

In writing, place the sentences in their natural order; admit no sentence into a paragraph that does not help in developing its topic; and indent the first line of each paragraph.

EXERCISE 11

I. Think of something that you have read, or something that has happened to you or to some one whom you know. Tell the story of this occurrence. Before you write the story,

make an outline. In your story make a paragraph about each of the headings, or topics, in your outline.

II. Tell orally the story that you have written. You may use your outline as a guide in telling the story.

LESSON 12

ORAL COMPOSITION; A TALK

The first thing necessary in writing or talking is to have something to say. Learn all you can about your subject. Read about it. If you are to talk on a subject that you can learn about by observation, go to see the thing that will help you.

Then organize your material. Make an outline. Your talk, no matter how short it may be, must have a beginning, a middle, and an end. Arrange your facts or statements in good order. Some of them should be placed before certain others in order to make your talk clear and forcible. Keep the outline brief and clear, so that it will help you if you hold it in your hand while talking.

Practice your talk before you make it in class. Stand up and try to say what you have to say just as you will say it in the classroom. If you make a mistake, don't stop and go back to correct it. Go straight through your speech or story; then go over it all a second time and correct the errors you made at first. Don't try to memorize the language to be used. Remember that the first consideration is to be interesting,

to hold the attention of your audience. This is more important than avoiding errors in language.

Stand straight and look at your audience. Be simple and natural. Let your voice fall at the end of sentences, unless they are questions. Articulate clearly; sound the syllable *ing* fully; say *walking*, not *walkin'*. Do not string several sentences together with *and-a* or *then-a*.

EXERCISE 12

I. *Select some brief humorous anecdote and tell it to the class.* It is not necessary to have a new anecdote; it is more important that it be well selected and well told. You may get your story from the humorous department of some newspaper or magazine. Select a story in which something happens, not merely a witty remark or a play upon words.

II. *Tell an incident from the life of some great man.* You can find good stories in Franklin's *Autobiography*, or any life of Lincoln, or the biography of some other man who interests you.

III. *Prepare and relate in class one of the following stories from the Bible:*

Jacob's Dream
Joseph is Sold into Slavery
Joseph's Interpretation of Pharaoh's Dream
David and Goliath
Ruth and Naomi
Belshazzar and the Handwriting on the Wall

LESSON 13

DICTATION; PARAGRAPHS

EXERCISE 13

I. *Study the following paragraph and write it from dictation:*

A few Sundays ago I stood on a hill in Washington. My heart thrilled as I looked on the towering marble of my country's Capitol, and a mist gathered in my eyes as, standing there, I thought of the powers there assembled and the responsibilities there centered—its President, its Congress, its courts, its gathered treasure, its army, its navy, and its sixty millions of citizens. It seemed to me the best and mightiest sight that the sun could find in its wheeling course —this majestic home of a republic that has taught the world its best lesson of liberty. I felt that if wisdom and justice and honor abided therein, the world would stand indebted to this temple on which my eyes rested.

HENRY WOODFIN GRADY

II. *Select a few paragraphs from your textbook in history or some other subject.* Study the paragraphs. Does each one have a single main idea?

Write, for each paragraph, a sentence that expresses briefly its main idea. Will this plan help you in studying a lesson? Does it not tend to fix in your mind the most important statements of the lesson?

LESSON 14

DESCRIPTION

Toby was the most utterly shabby, mean-looking cur I ever beheld. He had not one good feature except his teeth

and eyes, and his bark—if that can be called a feature. He was not ugly enough to be interesting; his color was black and white, his shape leggy and clumsy.

He was of the bull terrier variety. He had a large skull, and a rich bark as of a dog three times his size, and a tail which I never saw equaled. It was of immense girth and not short, equal throughout like a policeman's baton. The machinery for working it was of great power, and acted in a way—as far as I have been able to discover—quite original. We called it his ruler.

When he wished to get into the house, he first whined gently, then growled, then gave a short bark; and then there came a resounding, mighty stroke which shook the house. This, after much study and watching, we found was done by his bringing the entire length of his solid tail flat upon the door, with a sudden and vigorous stroke.

Toby was a dog of great moral excellence—affectionate, faithful, honest up to his light, with an odd humor as peculiar and as strong as his tail. My father, in his reserved way, was very fond of him, and there must have been funny scenes with them, for we heard bursts of laughter issuing from his study when they two were by themselves.

Dr. John Brown, from *Rab and his Friends* (abridged)

EXERCISE 14

I. Note that the author gives you many details which help you to picture in your mind the dog—his color, his eyes, his tail. The author gives also details that show you the general character of the dog, such as his original method of getting some one to open the door, and his affection for his master. What comparison is used in describing the dog?

Make an outline of the description of Toby. How many topics will be needed?

Read again the first sentence of the description of the

dog. Does it express the main thought of the first paragraph? Does it agree with the first topic you selected for your outline?

A sentence which expresses in a general way the topic of a paragraph is called a **topic sentence.**

II. Write a description of some dog, cat, horse, or other animal that you have had a chance to observe carefully. Make the description about as long as that of Toby. Try to write so that a person reading your description would have in his mind a good picture of the animal you are describing. If you can make comparisons that will aid the description, as Dr. John Brown does, use them.

LESSON 15

PUNCTUATION

EXERCISE 15

Study carefully the punctuation in the first two paragraphs of the description of Toby. Write these paragraphs from dictation.

LESSON 16

PICTURE STUDY AND DESCRIPTION

On the opposite page is a reproduction of a painting by Sir Edwin Landseer, a distinguished English painter whose works are famous and popular. Landseer excelled in the painting of dogs. This picture represents a fine type of Newfoundland. These dogs take natu-

From the Painting by Landseer

A Distinguished Member of the Humane Society

rally to the water. Their size, strength, and ability as swimmers have enabled them to rescue many people from drowning. It is this fact about the Newfoundland that caused Landseer to paint this dog in the surroundings we see in the picture and to give it the title, "A Distinguished Member of the Humane Society."

EXERCISE 16

Learn all that you can from observation, conversation, and reading about Newfoundland dogs. Write a description of the dog in Landseer's painting.

LESSON 17

NARRATION

A Narrow Escape

I must stop here to tell the reason why I would not convict the meanest thief on circumstantial evidence. I would rather let a thousand go free than risk with one what I risked and shudder yet to think of. There had been some public excitement that summer about mad dogs, especially spitz dogs. . . . There was one always prowling about the lot behind my office, through which the way led to my boarding house, and when it snapped my leg in passing one day, I determined to kill it in the interest of public safety. I sent my office boy out to buy a handful of buckshot, and when he brought it, set about loading both barrels of the fowling-piece that stood in my office. . . .

It was unlawful to shoot within the city limits, and I sent the boy up to the station to tell the captain not to mind if he

heard shooting around—I was going out for a dog. With that I set forth upon my quest.

The dog was there; but he escaped before I could get a shot at him. He dodged, growling and snapping among the weeds, and at last ran into a large inclosed lot in which were stacks of lumber and junk and many hiding-places. I knew that he could not get out, for the board fence was high and tight. So I went in and shut the door after me, and I had him.

I should have said before, that among my enemies was a worthless fellow, a hanger-on of the local political machine, who had in the afternoon been in the office annoying me with his loud and boisterous talk. He was drunk, and as some people had called to see me, I put him out. He persisted in coming back, and I finally told him, in the hearing of a dozen persons, to go about his business or some serious harm would befall him. If I connected any idea with it, it was to call a policeman; but I left them to infer something worse, I suppose. . . .

It was twilight when I began my still hunt for the spitz in the lumber lot, and the outlines of things were more or less vague; but I followed the dog about until at last I made him out, standing on a pile of boards a little way off. It was my chance. I raised the gun quickly and took aim. I had both barrels cocked and my finger on the trigger, when something told me quite distinctly not to shoot, to put down my gun and go closer. I did so, and found, not the dog as I thought, but my enemy whom I had threatened an hour or two before, asleep at full length on the stack with his coat rolled under his head for a pillow. It was his white shirt bosom which I had mistaken in the twilight for the spitz dog.

Jacob A. Riis, from *The Making of an American*

The series of dots in this selection indicate the omission of parts of the original narrative.

EXERCISE 17

Read this story carefully and make an outline of it.

Retell the story orally or in writing, using your own words.

What is circumstantial evidence?

In the fourth paragraph, Mr. Riis says that he should have told about his enemy earlier. Do you think it would have improved the story if he had done so? Tell the story and explain the incident of the quarrel immediately after the reference to circumstantial evidence. See if you think the story is improved by that arrangement.

LESSON 18

SOME COMMON ERRORS

Our language is a matter of habit. Incorrect expressions are often used by people who know better but who formed the habit of using the wrong expression before they knew the right one. In such a case, one must break the habit of using the wrong form and must establish the habit of using the right form.

EXERCISE 18

I. *Answer these questions, using* he (*or* him) and I (*or* me). *Make your answer a complete sentence.*

1. Who is ready for a good time?
2. Whom shall I allow to go out?
3. Between whom shall I divide this candy?
4. For whom are these letters?

Answer these questions, using complete sentences. Give both negative and affirmative answers.

5. Did you see Alice?
6. Did you go to any baseball games last summer?
7. Did you do that?
8. Have you no pencil?
9. Does Henry play baseball?

Write from dictation, filling the blanks with the proper form of the verb given at the end of the sentence:

10. Has the bell ——? (*ring*)
11. I have —— this way before. (*go*)
12. We have —— that circus. (*see*)
13. We had often —— that horse. (*drive*)
14. I had —— you a letter. (*write*)
15. The tree has ——. (*fall*)

Fill the blanks with the correct form:

16. Many people —— there. (*was, were*)
17. You —— there, Harry. (*was, were*)
18. Has George —— yet? (*come, came*)
19. —— people are going. (*them, those*)
20. It —— mine. (*ain't, isn't*)
21. Every boy brought —— own lunch. (*his, their*)
22. He divided the cookies —— the members of the baseball team. (*between, among*)

Between is used of two persons or things, *among* of more than two.

Correct all these expressions:

23. Don't she look real nice?
24. He must have took the book.

25. Who did you go with?
26. They saw we girls there.
27. That there book is mine.
28. This here book is yours.
29. Where is he at?
30. He wanted to read it for hisself.
31. He didn't do nothing.
32. They had ought to do better.
33. The king he went to battle.
34. The morning was kind of cloudy.
35. I taken my book home.

II. *Study the* Errors of Speech on page *296*.

LESSON 19

REASONING FROM OBSERVATION

A Habit of Angleworms

Morren says that angleworms often lie for hours almost motionless close beneath the mouths of their burrows. I have occasionally noticed the same fact with worms kept in pots in the house; so that by looking down into their burrows their heads could just be seen. If the ejected earth or rubbish over the burrows is suddenly removed, the end of the worm's body may very often be seen rapidly retreating.

This habit of lying near the surface leads to their destruction to an immense extent. Every morning, during certain seasons of the year, the thrushes and blackbirds on all the lawns throughout the country draw out of their holes an astonishing number of worms; and this they could not do unless the worms lay close to the surface.

It is not probable that worms behave in this manner for

the sake of breathing fresh air, for they can live for a long time under water. I believe that they lie near the surface for the sake of warmth, especially in the morning; and we find that they often coat the mouths of their burrows with leaves, apparently to prevent their bodies from coming into close contact with the cold, damp earth.

CHARLES DARWIN

EXERCISE 19

1. Make an outline of the above selection, giving a topic for each paragraph.

2. Prepare a talk, telling in your own words what Darwin said about angleworms.

3. What kind of sentence is each of those in the selection above?

4. Try to sum up in a sentence the essential thought of the selection.

LESSON 20

TELLING THE NEWS FROM THE PAPER

Much that we talk about with interest and profit is based on what we read in newspapers. Most of the great questions on which we should be informed are discussed in the papers. Along with these things, there are accounts of crimes and follies that we do well not to dwell upon. The art of reading the papers so as to get quickly the news, facts, and discussions that are worth while, without encumbering our minds with what is base or frivolous, is an art that all should culti-

vate. To select some of the most interesting things in the papers and to tell them orally will help you to acquire this art and will furnish a good drill in telling things well.

Be careful to select a newspaper article that is not too long, that is interesting, and that is appropriate because it deals with something which a group of young people would be glad to discuss. Read the article carefully until you are thoroughly familiar with it. Make a brief outline if you choose, and try to sum up in a sentence the substance of the article. Then stand and talk about your topic just as you expect to do when you come to class. Be sure that you do not leave out important details. Let your voice fall at the end of sentences. Do not string your sentences together with *and's*.

EXERCISE 20

In accordance with the directions above, prepare to tell in class the contents of an appropriate article which you have read in a daily or weekly paper. If the article selected contains any word of which you do not know the meaning or the pronunciation, look it up in the dictionary.

LESSON 21

LETTER PAPER AND ENVELOPES

Letters should be written on paper of good quality, preferably unruled. It takes practice to write in a straight line on unruled paper after using the ruled

paper on which most school exercises are written; but it is an ability well worth cultivating. Unless a typewriter is used, letters should be written with pen and ink, and the writing should be neat and legible. A pencil should never be used for writing a letter, except in an emergency. There should be, on the left of the sheet, an even margin about three quarters of an inch wide, though the width may vary according to the size of the paper.

Letter paper is of various sizes. Full-size letter sheets are $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11 inches, and nearly all business correspondence is written on paper of these dimensions. Sometimes letter sheets are half this length and sometimes two thirds of it. Folded sheets for social and friendly correspondence vary considerably in size and shape, but a favorite size is about 5 by $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The envelope should be slightly larger than the sheet when folded according to the directions given on page 268.

To the Teacher. It is a good plan to show the class specimens of the different forms of letter paper and envelopes that are in good use. Show, also, examples of well-written letters—either those of pupils or those of adults—using both handwritten and typewritten letters. Envelopes correctly addressed should be exhibited.

EXERCISE 21

On unruled paper, copy the following letter. Copy the direction on the envelope either on a real envelope or in a rectangle ruled to correspond with the size and shape of a business envelope.

214 South Third Street,
London, Ohio,
November 28, 1917.

Perry Mason Company,
Commonwealth Avenue and St. Paul Street,
Boston, Massachusetts.

Gentlemen:

Inclosed find a post-office money order for $2.00, for which please send "The Youth's Companion" to my address for one year, beginning with the next issue.

Yours truly,
John T. Moad

After 5 days return to
John T. Moad, 214 South Third Street,
London, Ohio

Perry Mason Company
Commonwealth Avenue and St. Paul Street
Boston
Massachusetts

LESSON 22

LETTERS OF FRIENDSHIP

Letters of friendship, or social letters, should be written in a conversational style, for their purpose is to take the place of a talk with your friend or relative.

Letters should always be written with careful attention to penmanship, correct forms of speech, punctuation, and paragraphing. Since much of our writing is letters, our habits of composition will generally be such as we form in letter writing.

The following letter, written many years ago by Washington Irving to his sister, is a good example of a letter of friendship. Nearly a century ago Irving made a tour through a region which is now thickly populated but which at that time was the western frontier of the United States.

Independence, Missouri,
Sept. 26, 1832.

My dear Sister,

We arrived at this place the day before yesterday, after nine days' traveling on horseback from St. Louis. Our journey has been a very interesting one, leading across fine prairies and through noble forests, dotted here and there by farms and log houses, at which we found rough but wholesome and abundant fare and very civil treatment. Many parts of these prairies of Missouri are extremely beautiful, resembling cultivated countries embellished with parks and groves, rather than the savage rudeness of the wilderness.

Yesterday I went on a deer hunt in the vicinity of this place, which led me through some scenery that wanted only a castle, or a gentleman's seat here and there interspersed, to have equaled some of the most celebrated park scenery of England.

The fertility of this western country is truly astonishing. The soil is like that of a garden, and the luxuriance and beauty of the forests exceed any other that I have seen. We have gradually been advancing, however, toward rougher and rougher life, and are now at a little straggling frontier

village that has only been five years in existence. From here, in the course of a day or two, we take our departure southwardly, and shall soon bid adieu to civilization and encamp at night in tents. The climax will be our expedition with the Osages to their hunting grounds.

Affectionately your brother,

WASHINGTON IRVING

(This letter has been abridged.)

EXERCISE 22

Imagine that you are away on a journey; write a letter to a friend or relative. You may describe the scenes of some excursion you have actually taken; or the trip may be wholly imaginary, in which case you will draw upon your knowledge of geography or your reading to make an interesting letter.

LESSON 23

WRITING QUOTATIONS

A **direct quotation** is one that gives the exact words of another.

A question quoted in the exact words of the speaker is called a **direct question.**

George said to Charles, "The workmen will soon mend the fence."

Cain asked, "Am I my brother's keeper?"

Single marks inclose a quotation within a quotation; as,

The incorrectness of the dispatches led Bismarck to declare, "It will soon be said, 'He lies like the telegraph.'"

When a quotation is divided by a parenthetical expression, each part of the quotation is inclosed with quotation marks. The second part of the divided quotation does not begin with a capital letter unless the first word begins a new sentence or is a word that is always capitalized; as,

"I would rather be right," said Clay, "than be President."

An **indirect quotation** is one that gives the thought, but not the exact words, of another; as,

George told Charles that the workmen would soon mend the fence.

An **indirect question** is one which is referred to as a question but is not directly asked or quoted. It is not followed by an interrogation point.

Cain asked whether he was his brother's keeper.

The direct quotation (or question) is set off by the comma, begins with a capital letter, and is inclosed within quotation marks. The indirect quotation (or question) is not generally set off by the comma, does not necessarily begin with a capital letter, and is not inclosed within quotation marks.

No comma is used after the interrogation point in a direct question; as,

"Am I my brother's keeper?" asked Cain.

If the direct quotation (or question) is introduced in a formal way, it is preceded by the colon; as,

Nathan's words to David were these: "Thou art the man."

He put the question thus: "Can you do it?"

In quoting a question, the interrogation point must stand within the quotation marks, but when a question contains a quotation, this order is reversed; as,

He asked, "What are you living for?"

May we not find "sermons in stones"?

A similar rule applies to the exclamation point and quotation marks when used together. The exclamation point is written within the quotation marks if it belongs with the words quoted.

In writing a conversation, we make a separate paragraph of each speech, together with whatever explanatory words may accompany it; as,

"Alas! gentlemen," cried Rip, somewhat dismayed, "I am a poor, quiet man, a native of the place, and a loyal subject of the King, God bless him!"

Here a general shout burst from the bystanders—"A Tory! a Tory! A spy! a refugee! Hustle him! Away with him!"

It was with great difficulty that the self-important man in the cocked hat restored order.

EXERCISE 23

I. *Write five sentences containing direct quotations. Change these to the indirect form.*

II. *Study the following sentences and be able to write them from dictation:*

1. "Keep indoors, men," said the captain. "Ten to one, this is a new trick."

2. "What is the capital of Peru?" was the first question.

3. Emerson said, "Hitch your wagon to a star."

4. "That niece of yours is the most remarkable girl I have seen in years," said Mr. Burch when the door was closed.

5. "Good," thought I; "here comes the waiter with the bill."

6. "It is the assembly of the tribe," said one of the foresters, "the great night of the council."

7. Then Winfried's voice rang out: "Hail, ye sons of the forest! A stranger claims the warmth of your fire in the winter night."

8. "Naught fear I," said the boy, "neither darkness, nor the great bear, nor the were-wolf."

9. When Louis XVI heard that the Bastile had fallen, he exclaimed, "Why, this is a revolt!"

10. "Sire," was the reply, "it is a revolution!"

LESSON 24

PICTURE STUDY AND DESCRIPTION

EXERCISE 24

Study carefully the painting by Dagnan-Bouveret, "At the Watering Trough." Write a description of the scene portrayed.

From the Painting by Dagnan-Bouveret

AT THE WATERING TROUGH

LESSON 25

PUNCTUATION; THE COMMA

Phrases and clauses are said to be in the usual or *natural order* when they follow the words they modify. **Phrases that are placed out of their natural order** and thus made emphatic, or that are **loosely connected** with the rest of the sentence, should be set off by the comma. If the phrase is short or closely connected in thought with the word modified, it is not set off.

Of the scenery of the Rhine, many travelers speak with enthusiasm.

Between two mountains lies a fertile valley.

An **adverbial clause** is set off by the comma when it precedes the word it modifies.

As a man travels on in the journey of life, his objects of wonder daily diminish.

Words or phrases in a series are separated from each other by commas unless all the conjunctions are expressed.

Empires rise, flourish, and decay.

Cotton is raised in Egypt, in India, and in the United States.

Spring and summer and autumn and winter drifted past.

In writing **dates,** we use the comma to separate the year from the month, or from the day of the month.

Washington was born on February 22, 1732.

EXERCISE 25

Punctuate the following sentences:

1. He went at the urgent request of the stranger for the doctor.

2. Amid the angry yells of the spectators he died.

3. For the sake of emphasis a word or a phrase may be placed out of its natural order.

4. New York on the contrary abounds in men of wealth.

5. Thomas Edison was born in Ohio February 11 1847.

6. Edison is a great man a wonderful genius.

7. If you should ask him how he has become one of the foremost scientists he would probably tell you "By hard work."

8. We need short sharp quick direct word-pictures.

9. Under such circumstances there is a tendency to look upon achievement in some of these directions as an end in itself.

10. His spirit and his method will be as unconfined as the inaccessible mountains the great plains or the open sea.

11. On the ninth of April 1682 La Salle in the name of King Louis of France took possession of the land which he called Louisiana.

12. Washington said "I will raise a thousand men subsist them at my own expense and march with them at their head for the relief of Boston."

13. Every day of our lives on land or sea whether we will or not the air and the clouds and the sky surround us.

14. To the first settlers the red man was an object of curiosity.

LESSON 26

DICTATION; ARRANGEMENT OF RHYMING VERSES

EXERCISE 26

Write the following stanzas from dictation. Notice that there are four lines in each stanza, and that the second and fourth lines are indented. You see that the first and third lines rhyme, and that the second and fourth rhyme. Lines that rhyme with each other are indented the same distance.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
  The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea,
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
  And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
  And all the air a solemn stillness holds,
Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
  And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds.

THOMAS GRAY

LESSON 27

THE PARTS OF A LETTER

The parts of a letter are (1) the heading, (2) the inside address, (3) the salutation, (4) the body of the letter, (5) the complimentary close, and (6) the signature. In friendly letters the inside address may be omitted. The address on the envelope is called the superscription.

Outline of the Parts of a Letter

(Heading) { .... }

..... } (Address)
..... }

.....(Salutation)

(Body of Letter)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

(Complimentary Close).....

(Signature).....

Stamp

(Superscription)

....,

.....

.....

EXERCISE 27

Write a short business letter illustrating all the parts described in this lesson. Use the letter on page 209 as a model.

LESSON 28

STUDY OF A SPEECH

A Tribute to the Dog

The best friend a man has in this world may turn against him and become his enemy. His son or daughter whom he has reared with loving care may prove ungrateful. Those who are nearest and dearest to us—those whom we trust with our happiness and our good name—may become traitors to their faith. The money that a man has he may lose; it flies away from him, perhaps when he needs it most. A man's reputation may be sacrificed in a moment of ill-considered action. The people who are prone to fall on their knees to do us honor when success is with us may be the first to throw the stone of malice when failure settles its cloud upon our heads. The one absolute, unselfish friend that man can have in this selfish world—the one that never deserts him, the one that never proves ungrateful or treacherous—is his dog.

A man's dog stands by him in prosperity and in poverty, in health and in sickness. He will sleep on the cold ground, where the wintry winds blow and the snow drives fiercely, if only he can be near his master's side. He will kiss the hand that has no food to offer, he will lick the wounds and sores that come in encounter with the roughness of the world. He guards the sleep of his pauper master as if he were a prince.

When all other friends desert, he remains. When riches take wings and reputation falls to pieces, he is as constant in his love as the sun in its journey through the heavens. If fortune drives the master forth, an outcast in the world, friendless and homeless, the faithful dog asks no higher privilege than that of accompanying him to guard against danger, to fight against his enemies. And when the last scene of all comes, and Death takes the master in his embrace, and his body is laid away in the cold ground, no matter if all other friends pursue their way, there by his graveside will the noble dog be found, his head between his paws, his eyes sad but open in alert watchfulness, faithful and true even to death.

GEORGE GRAHAM VEST

One of the finest tributes to man's good friend, the dog, is the above speech, which was made by Senator Vest of Missouri in a lawsuit. Study it carefully and read it aloud. It will make a good declamation if committed to memory.

EXERCISE 28

Plan, write, memorize, and deliver before the class a speech of about the length of Vest's "Tribute to the Dog." You may select your own subject. If you care to do so, you may compose a tribute to the horse, in imitation of Vest's "Tribute to the Dog."

LESSON 29

THE USE OF ADJECTIVES

In using adjectives, select those that exactly express your meaning. Do not use too many adjectives; and in describing any particular thing, be careful not to

use two or more adjectives that have nearly the same meaning. In the following expression all the adjectives except the last should be omitted:

A great, large, roomy, spacious hall.

In the next expression only one of the adjectives is necessary:

A stingy, miserly, close-fisted fellow.

Careless persons and those with a small list of adjectives at command overwork and abuse such words as *nice, awful, horrid, splendid, lovely.* They say *awful pens, horrid ink, splendid pie,* etc. Pens and ink may be poor, useless, annoying, unsatisfactory, but *awful* and *horrid* are words too large and intense in meaning to apply to small or ordinary things. A disaster like the sinking of the *Titanic* or the San Francisco earthquake is awful; a brutal crime may be a horrid or horrible affair.

If you have the habit of overworking such words as *awful,* select words that may properly be substituted, and form the habit of using adjectives of exact meaning.

An is used before words beginning with a vowel sound and *a* before words beginning with a consonant sound.

EXAMPLES: an apple, an obedient child, a busy boy, an honor, a university.

Remember that *them* is a pronoun and should not be used in place of the adjective *those.* To say *them books* for *those books* is an error.

The order in which adjectives are placed is sometimes important. When two or more adjectives modify a noun and there is any difference in their relative importance, place nearest the noun the one most intimately connected with it.

We say, "The *beautiful blue* sky is cloudless," not "The *blue beautiful* sky is cloudless."

When the adjectives modifying a noun are of the same rank, place them where they will sound the best. This will usually be in the order of their length, the longest last; as,

A *fluent and entertaining* speaker followed.

EXERCISE 29

I. *Correct the errors in the use of adjectives and adverbs:*

1. An enthusiastic, noisy, large crowd was addressed.
2. Them two sentences should be corrected.
3. A young industrious man was hired.
4. The weather was awfully warm.
5. The armchair was roomy and capacious.
6. It was a lovely cake, but I paid a frightful price for it.
7. The boy was impudent and saucy.
8. The new stone large house was sold.
9. I have had terribly bad luck; I lost my fountain pen.
10. It was a horrid dinner that we had at that small hotel.

II. *Bring to class as many adjectives as you can think of, or find, that may accurately be used with the following nouns.*

Use your dictionaries to be sure that you have adjectives with the proper meanings.

1. George Washington
2. Watermelons
3. The Great War that began in August, 1914
5. Mont Blanc
5. Football
6. Basket ball
7. Alcohol
8. Corn
9. Books
10. Benedict Arnold
11. Labor
12. The starry heavens
13. Fishing
14. Winter
15. The American Indians
16. Automobiles

LESSON 30

STUDY OF A POEM

The Chambered Nautilus

This is the ship of pearl, which, poets feign,
Sails the unshadowed main,—
The venturous bark that flings
On the sweet summer wind its purpled wings
In gulfs enchanted, where the Siren sings,
And coral reefs lie bare
Where the cold sea-maids rise to sun their streaming hair.

Its webs of living gauze no more unfurl;
Wrecked is the ship of pearl!
And every chambered cell,
Where its dim, dreaming life was wont to dwell
As the frail tenant shaped his growing shell,
Before thee lies revealed,—
Its irised ceiling rent, its sunless crypt unsealed!

Year after year beheld the silent toil
That spread his lustrous coil;
Still, as the spiral grew,
He left the past year's dwelling for the new,
Stole with soft step its shining archway through,
Built up its idle door,
Stretched in his last-found home, and knew the old no more.

Thanks for the heavenly message brought by thee,
Child of the wandering sea,
Cast from her lap, forlorn!
From thy dead lips a clearer note is born
Than ever Triton blew from wreathéd horn!
While on mine ear it rings,
Through the deep caves of thought I hear a voice that sings:—

Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
As the swift seasons roll!
Leave thy low-vaulted past!
Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
Till thou at length art free,
Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea!

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

EXERCISE 30

The nautilus is a small marine animal which floats upon the water. As it grows, it moves out of the old part of its shell into the new and larger part, and seals up the compartment it has vacated. This process it repeats from time to time.

Siren: A sea-nymph who, by her sweet singing, lures sailors to destruction.

Irised: Colored like the rainbow.

Crypt: A vault.

Triton: In Greek mythology, a sea-god who blows a conch-shell trumpet to raise or calm the waves.

What are "the cold sea-maids" to whom the poet refers in the last line of the first stanza?

Why is the nautilus said to have a "dim, dreaming life"?

Explain the word *tenant* in line 5, stanza 2.

What does *lustrous* mean, line 2, stanza 3?

Explain the word *forlorn*, line 3, stanza 4.

Give in your own words the lesson that Holmes learns from the nautilus.

Read the poem aloud in such a way that your audience may understand the thought and feel the emotion expressed in the poem.

Memorize "The Chambered Nautilus." It has been found that a poem can be memorized most easily, not by taking it one line at a time or a stanza at a time, but by repeating the poem as a unit; that is, by reading it over and over from beginning to end, and then trying to give the entire poem. Try this plan in memorizing this poem.

LESSON 31

PUNCTUATION OF COMPOUND SENTENCES

Principal clauses, when short and closely connected, are separated by the comma; but the clauses are separated by the semicolon when they are only slightly connected, or are subdivided by the comma.

We must conquer our passions, or they will conquer us.

The prodigal robs his heirs; the miser robs himself.

There is a fierce conflict between good and evil; but good is in the ascendant, and we know that it must triumph.

EXERCISE 31

I. *Study these compound sentences and tell why they are punctuated as they are:*

1. He owed more than two thousand pounds, and he saw no hope of extrication from his embarrassments.

2. Good wits jump; a word to the wise is sufficient.

3. Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other.

4. Dictionaries are like watches; the worst is better than none, and the best cannot be expected to go quite true.

5. I used to enjoy reading your letters, and I regret your long silence.

6. You are young, and have the world before you: stoop as you go through it, and you will miss many hard thumps.

7. I meant to be at Ethan Crawford's to-night; but a pedestrian lingers along such a road as this.

8. I was fatigued with traveling, rowing, and want of rest; I was very hungry; and my whole stock of cash consisted of a Dutch dollar and about a shilling in copper.

9. Doubtless God could have made a better berry than the strawberry, but doubtless God never did.

10. A cow is a very good animal in a field; but we turn her out of a garden.

II. *Punctuate the following compound sentences:*

1. Man proposes but God disposes.

2. It is not done well but you are surprised to find it done at all.

3. That fellow seems to me to possess but one idea and that is a wrong one.

4. I never take a nap after dinner except when I have had a bad night and then the nap takes me.

5. Charity suffereth long and is kind charity envieth not charity vaunteth not itself is not puffed up.

6. I have found you an argument I am not obliged to find you an understanding.

7. I like their beauty I like their delicacy I like their vivacity and I like their silence.

8. We drove down to the Hudson cottage but Mary Charles and Elizabeth had taken the morning train to the city.

9. His business declined his debts increased it was with difficulty that the daily expenses of his household were defrayed.

10. An ordinary lad would have acquired little or no useful knowledge in such a way but much that was dull to ordinary lads was interesting to Samuel.

LESSON 32

THE HEADING OF A LETTER

Notice carefully the following headings:

1

Montrose, Missouri,
July 9, 1917.

2

Montrose, Missouri, July 9, 1917.

3

Route 8, Independence, Kansas,
May 17, 1917.

4

Box 384, Somerset, Kentucky,
December 9, 1918.

5

1446 Colorado Avenue,
Rochester, New York,
August 2, 1918.

In a small town or village where the mail is not delivered at the houses, it is sufficient to write in the heading the names of the town and the state. The number of the post-office box may be added, as in No. 4 above. If the writer's mail is delivered at his house by a rural mail carrier, the number of the rural route should be given. Whether the heading will occupy one line or more, depends somewhat upon the width of the paper. The style given in No. 1 looks better on narrow paper, while No. 2 is suitable for a wide sheet.

Note how the commas and periods are used in the specimen headings. Periods are, of course, placed after any abbreviations that may be used; but it is better form to avoid the use of abbreviations in headings. Punctuation at the ends of lines may be dispensed with if the writer prefers. Thus, it is allowable to write No. 5 in the manner shown below.

Instead of the slanted arrangement of the lines, it is permissible to use the "block" form, as in No. 6. In typewritten letters, the block form is often used for the heading and the inside address, and also for the address on the envelope.

6

1446 Colorado Avenue
Rochester, New York
August 2, 1918

1446 Colorado Avenue
Rochester, New York
August 2, 1918

EXERCISE 32

Write headings for letters written from the following places on the dates named:

1. Billings, Missouri, May 11, 1917.
2. The La Salle Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, January 2, 1918.
3. A friend's farm near Reinbeck, Iowa; the farm is on Route 4.
4. Your own home, to-day.

LESSON 33

ORAL COMPOSITION; REPORTS ON READING

You know that there is much material of great interest that cannot be put into textbooks of history, geography, and other subjects because of lack of space. For this reason we have books of supplementary reading and the fine collections of books in libraries.

In your supplementary readers, in your school library, in books or magazines that you may have at home or can obtain from a public library, there are many valuable and interesting facts about the topics you study in history, geography, hygiene, agriculture, civil government, and literature. In many schools pupils are asked to read supplementary material and to report on their reading in class.

These reports are a valuable form of oral composition. In preparing them, remember all the directions for making a talk, given on page 196. Read with care chapters or pages assigned to you. Make a careful

outline of the most interesting and important facts. Rehearse your report at home.

EXERCISE 33

Below are subjects from various school studies which may be used for oral reports on reading. Study this list and see if you have access to books in which you might learn about any of these subjects. If you are sure that you can find material on one of these topics, select it for an oral report. Your teacher may prefer to assign other topics, or you may yourself think of interesting and appropriate topics which you have the means of investigating.

1. Some Interesting Events in the History of Our State.
2. Plantation Life in the South.
3. The Lewis and Clark Expedition.
4. Life in New England in Colonial Times.
5. Braddock's Defeat.
6. Franklin's Boyhood.
7. Daniel Boone.
8. The Mound Builders.
9. The Louisiana Purchase.
10. Yellowstone Park.
11. The Nile.
12. The Discovery of the Poles.
13. How to Get Rid of the House Fly.
14. Care of the Teeth.
15. Why Boys Should Not Use Tobacco.
16. The Army Worm.
17. Spraying Fruit Trees.
18. The Rotation of Crops.
19. A Model Kitchen.
20. Good Methods of Canning and Preserving.

From the Painting by Seita

THE DISCUSSION

LESSON 34

PICTURE STUDY AND DESCRIPTION

The picture reproduced on the opposite page was painted by Anton Seitz, a German artist. The original is in the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City.

EXERCISE 34

Study the picture and discuss it in class. If you could examine the painting itself, you would see a horse in the background. What news do you think the speaker is telling?

Write a description of the picture, telling who you imagine these people are and what the scene suggests to you.

LESSON 35

EXPOSITION

How Franklin Learned to Write Good English

About this time I met with an odd volume of the *Spectator*—I think that it was the third. I had never before seen any of them. I bought it, read it over and over, and was much delighted with it. I thought the writing excellent, and wished, if possible, to imitate it.

With this view, I took some of the papers, and making short hints of the sentiment in each sentence, laid them by a few days, and then without looking at the book, tried to complete the papers again, by expressing each hinted sentiment at length, and as fully as it had been expressed before, in any suitable words that should come to hand. Then I

compared my *Spectator* with the original, discovered some of my faults, and corrected them.

But I found that I wanted a stock of words or a readiness in using them, which I thought I should have acquired before that time if I had gone on making verses; since the continual occasion for words of the same import but of different length, to suit the measure, or of different sound for the rhyme, would have laid me under a constant necessity of searching for variety, and also have tended to fix that variety in my mind and make me master of it. Therefore, I took some of the tales and turned them into verse; and after a time, when I had pretty well forgotten the prose, turned them back again.

I also sometimes jumbled my collection of hints into confusion, and after some weeks endeavored to reduce them to the best order, before I began to form the full sentences and complete the paper. This was to teach me method in the arrangement of thoughts.

By comparing my work afterwards with the original, I discovered many faults and amended them; but I sometimes had the pleasure of fancying that, in certain matters of small import, I had been lucky enough to improve the method or the language, and this encouraged me to think that I might possibly in time come to be a tolerable English writer, of which I was extremely ambitious.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, from his *Autobiography*

This is an explanation, or **exposition,** of the way in which Franklin learned to write prose.

EXERCISE 35

I. The *Spectator* was a paper that appeared daily for about two years in England in the early part of the eighteenth century. Its principal authors were Addison and Steele.

Before he began to imitate the *Spectator*, Franklin had written several poems.

What is the meaning of *sentiment?*

What word means a *stock of words?*

How, according to Franklin, would the continued writing of verse have improved his knowledge and use of words?

The word *import* is used twice. What is its meaning in each sentence?

II. You may apply Franklin's method to this exposition of how he learned to write; that is, you may imitate Franklin as he imitated Addison. Read the exposition carefully and write down the different steps in it, making a topic for each paragraph.

Close your book, and in the best words that occur to you rewrite Franklin's account of his method of learning to write. Use the outline that you have made. Compare your work with the original.

LESSON 36

A SCHOOL PAPER

The preparation of a school paper is interesting and profitable. Into it may be put some of the best compositions of the class, little items of news about the school or the students, and brief articles of general news.

These should all be written in the clearest form. The manuscript should be as nearly perfect as you can make it. You might use a colored paper cover, writing on it only the name and the date. The first page should give the contents.

In some cases the school or some of the pupils may have typewriters on which the paper can be copied.

With a typewriter, three or four copies can be made by the use of carbon sheets. Some schools have hectographs or mimeographs, and on these many copies can be made. Other schools have small printing outfits with which a large number of copies can be printed.

Only two or three issues of the paper should be attempted during the year, and these should be carefully planned and executed.

EXERCISE 36

Make preparation for talks on some of the following subjects. Make an outline for each talk.

1. Why We Should Have a School Paper.
2. An Argument against a School Paper.
3. Some Plans for a School Paper.
4. The Difficulties of Issuing a School Paper.
5. What We Might Learn from Issuing a Paper.
6. Names for the Paper and Why They Are Appropriate.

LESSON 37

THE PREPARATION OF MANUSCRIPT

Every composition that you write should be the best you can produce. The handwriting should be neat and legible, and the letters should be well-formed and regular. One important means of securing legibility is to leave plenty of space between the words and between the lines. If the words are crowded, the writing will be hard to read. If the lines are too close together, or if the loops of the letters are so long that the lines overlap, the writing will be illegible.

Leave a straight, even margin on the left side of the page. This margin should be an inch wide on paper eight by ten inches or larger, but may be slightly narrower on paper not so large.

The heading should be written in the middle of the page. Every important word in it should begin with a capital letter. If you are writing on ruled paper, leave a vacant line between the heading and the beginning of your composition. If the paper is unruled, leave a space of about an inch.

Indent the first word of each paragraph about half an inch.

EXERCISE 37

In your own words, write what you learned about angleworms in Lesson 19. Make this the best-looking manuscript that you can produce.

LESSON 38

EXPOSITION

EXERCISE 38

Write an exposition on one of the following topics:

1. How to Make Sponge Cake (or some other kind of cake).
2. How to Make Bread.
3. How to Make Biscuits.
4. How to Make Money in Raising Chickens.
5. The Best Methods of Raising Corn.
6. How to Play Tennis.
7. The Game of Baseball.

8. How Checkers is Played.
9. How Alcohol Injures the Body.
10. How to Care for the Teeth.

Ask yourself the following questions about your essay:

a. Is the handwriting neat and legible?

b. Have I kept an even margin of the proper width on the left?

c. Is the first word of every paragraph indented?

d. Have I in any case left a blank space at the end of a line when I do not intend to begin a paragraph on the next line?

e. Have I begun every sentence with a capital and put the proper mark at the end of every sentence?

f. Have I punctuated as a sentence any group of words that is not a sentence?

g. Have I joined together by *and's* sentences that ought to be separated?

LESSON 39

DICTATION; CORRECT SPEECH

EXERCISE 39

Write from dictation, filling the blanks with the proper form:

1. May Mary and —— go to town? (*I, me*)
2. Will you let George and —— clean the erasers? (*I, me*)
3. Charles —— take music lessons now. (*don't, doesn't*)
4. John stands ——. (*bad, badly*)
5. The milk tasted ——. (*sour, sourly*)
6. —— we bring in this theme to-morrow? (*may, can*)
7. —— you the first to arrive? (*was, were*)

8. Mary is taller than ——. (*she, her*)
9. The ox —— to drink the water. (*began, begun*)
10. —— did you say won? (*who, whom*)

Analyze or diagram this sentence if you are in doubt.

11. To —— shall the prize be given? (*who, whom*)
12. Do you know —— it is? (*who, whom*)
13. Each of the boys —— well. (*write, writes*)
14. Read it —— I read it. (*like, as*)
15. Walk —— me. (*like, as*)
16. Every one worked —— problems. (*his, their*)
17. Either of the sisters —— the car. (*drive, drives*)
18. The speaker —— know when to stop. (*don't, doesn't*)
19. There —— four men in the field. (*is, are*)
20. Willis —— me part of his lunch. (*give, gave*)
21. The little birds sing ——. (*sweet, sweetly*)
22. —— the chair in the dining room. (*sit, set*)
23. He will divide it between you and ——. (*I, me*)
24. Glen —— me to row a boat. (*learned, taught*)
25. Henry always did his work ——. (*good, well*)

LESSON 40

ORAL COMPOSITION; A TALK

EXERCISE 40

1. Prepare, and give before the class, a talk on "How the Use of Good English Helps a Young Person in Business."

2. Prepare, and give before the class, a talk on "How to Write Letters of Friendship."

3. Prepare, and give before the class, a talk on "How Franklin Learned to Write Good English."

In making your talk, remember that you should

a. Stand erect.

b. Look at your audience.

c. Let your voice fall at the end of sentences, except those that ask questions.

Speak clearly; pronounce the final *g* in words ending in *ing*.

LESSON 41

ESSENTIAL AND NON-ESSENTIAL CLAUSES

The **adjective clause,** when not essential, is set off by the comma.

A clause is **restrictive,** or **essential,** when it limits the meaning of the word it modifies. If a clause is not essential, it simply adds a detail to our knowledge of the word modified. An essential clause cannot be spared from the sentence, for the meaning would be very different if it were absent. A **non-essential clause** could be dropped out of the sentence, and there would be no great or essential change in meaning.

For example, in the sentence "The boy who entered school yesterday will please come to the desk," we see that the clause *who entered school yesterday* is essential because it restricts the meaning of *boy* to just one individual.

"The stranger came close to the fire, which was now burning cheerfully:"—in this sentence the adjective clause is added as a descriptive detail, but it is not absolutely essential to the sentence.

An **adverbial clause** is set off by the comma unless it follows closely and restricts the word it modifies.

I will not call him villain, *because it would be unparliamentary.*
Paper was invented in China, *if the Chinese tell the truth.*

In the above sentences the adverbial clauses are supplementary and are added almost as afterthoughts.

Glass bends easily *when it is red-hot.*
Leaves do not turn red *because the frost colors them.*
It will break *if you touch it.*

The adverbial clauses in the above sentences are essential; each is very closely related in thought to the principal clause, and may be said to be a necessary part of the sentence.

Note that when the adverbial clause precedes the word it modifies, even if it is essential, it is set off by a comma; as,

When it is red-hot, glass bends easily.

EXERCISE 41

Tell which of these clauses are essential and which are non-essential, and punctuate accordingly:

1. The year when Chaucer was born is uncertain.
2. He is the freeman whom the truth makes free.
3. There is a sumptuous variety about the New England weather that compels the stranger's admiration—and regret.
4. See! Antony that revels long o' nights
   Is notwithstanding up.

5. This was the first time I ever heard of the plan which afterwards proved to be so important to me.

6. One who is interested in laying hold on wisdom is likely to become a scholar.

7. He was introduced to Johnson who was then considered the first of living English writers.

8. The novel which was thus ushered into the world was "The Vicar of Wakefield."

9. He committed some strange blunders for he knew nothing of accuracy.

10. He came of a Protestant and Saxon family which had long been settled in Ireland.

11. By this time the schoolmaster whom he had served for a morsel of food and the third part of a bed was no more.

12. He had inherited from his ancestors a scrofulous taint which it was beyond the power of medicine to remove.

13. While he was thus irregularly educating himself his family was sinking into poverty.

14. I cannot leave until the proprietor returns.

15. He never forgot the generosity with which Hervey who was now residing in London relieved his wants during this time of trial.

16. If you call a dog Hervey I shall love him.

17. Bring me the brown book that stands on the highest shelf.

18. The book which was covered with dust had been a favorite with his uncle.

19. Among them was Sir Thomas Randolph whose mother was a sister of King Robert.

20. He will pay the note when he sells his wheat.

21. I had often passed his house when I was taking my morning ride.

From the Painting by Leutze

WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE

22. By following this plan we shall reach the ore if there is any ore.

23. Though I am no judge of such matters
I'm sure he's a talented man.

24. The visitor has killed all kinds of big game if we may believe his stories.

25. It is best not to swap horses while crossing a river.

LESSON 42

DESCRIPTION OF A PAINTING

EXERCISE 42

On the opposite page is a reproduction of the well-known picture by Leutze, "Washington Crossing the Delaware." Read in your history, or in other reference books, the account of how Washington crossed the ice-filled river and surprised the enemy at Trenton.

Write a description of the picture.

LESSON 43

ADDRESS AND SALUTATION OF LETTERS

The **inside address** consists of the name of the person or firm to whom the letter is written and the names of the state and town or city to which the letter is sent. In addition to the name of the place, there should be a street address, rural route, or post-office box. The proper title should be given the person addressed, as in the following illustrations.

Notice the commas and periods in these addresses:

1

Mr. Frank R. Swan,
Reynoldsville,
Pennsylvania.

2

Miss Elizabeth Woods,
256 Hitt Street,
Douglas, Arizona.

3

Longmans, Green, and Co.,
443 Fourth Avenue,
New York,
New York.

The inside address may also be written without punctuation at the ends of lines.

In letters of friendship, the inside address may be omitted, but it should always be written in business letters; and there is a good reason for writing it in all letters. If through accident the envelope should be destroyed or the direction on it rendered illegible, the address on the inside would make it possible for the post-office department to forward the letter to its destination.

The form of **salutation** depends upon the relations existing between the writer and his correspondent. In letters of friendship or family letters there is little difficulty about the salutation. In business letters, "Dear Sir" is the form usually employed in addressing a man. "Dear Madam" is the salutation for a woman, whether married or unmarried. "My dear Sir" and "My dear Madam" are more formal salutations than those which omit *my*. "Gentlemen" or "Dear Sirs" is the form used in addressing a firm or a body of men.

Here are some appropriate salutations for friendly letters:

Dear Mother,	Dear Friend,
Dear Mr. Parton,	Dear Lucy,

"Kind Sir," "Kind Friend," and "Friend Brown" are not in good use. "Dear Friend" should not be used in a business letter.

It is customary to use, after the salutation, a colon in a formal business letter and a comma in a friendly letter.

EXERCISE 43

1. Write a letter, ordering some book that you would like to have.

2. Write a letter to a relative, thanking him for a birthday present.

3. Suppose that you have moved to another town and are required to have a copy of your grades, or record, at your former school before you can be classified in the new school. Write a letter to your former teacher, asking for the necessary information. Mention the fact that you inclose a stamp for her reply.

LESSON 44

THE ORDER OF MODIFIERS

Place adverbs where there can be no doubt as to the words you intend them to modify.

WRONG

I only bring forward a few things.
We merely speak of numbers.
The Chinese chiefly live upon rice.

RIGHT

I bring forward only a few things.
We speak merely of numbers.
The Chinese live chiefly upon rice.

In using a **participle,** be careful to leave no doubt as to what you intend it to modify.

WRONG

A poor child was found in the streets by a wealthy and benevolent gentleman suffering from cold and hunger.

RIGHT

A poor child suffering from cold and hunger was found in the streets by a wealthy and benevolent gentleman.

Place **phrase modifiers** where there can be no doubt as to what you intend them to modify.

WRONG

That small man is speaking with red whiskers.

RIGHT

That small man with red whiskers is speaking.

The **adjective clause** should be placed as near as possible to the word it modifies.

WRONG

Solomon was the son of David who built the Temple.

RIGHT

Solomon, who built the Temple, was the son of David.

The order of words, phrases, and clauses is very important in English. **Always place modifiers in such a**

way that the meaning will be clear. Also, **arrange modifiers so that the sentence will sound smooth.**

EXERCISE 44

Change the order in the following sentences where it is necessary to make the meaning clear or to improve the sound. Punctuate your sentences.

1. Hath the Lord only spoken by Moses?

2. He must have certainly been sick.

3. The honorable member was reproved for being intoxicated by the president.

4. A gentleman will let his house going abroad for the summer to a small family containing all the improvements.

5. With his gun towards the woods he started in the morning.

6. Seated on the topmost branch of a tall tree busily engaged in gnawing an acorn we espied a squirrel.

7. The Knights of the Round Table flourished in the reign of King Arthur who vied with their chief in chivalrous exploits.

8. The town contains fifty houses and one hundred inhabitants built of brick.

9. On Monday evening a lecture by Governor Hanly was delivered at the old brick church on prohibition.

10. Suits ready made of material cut by an experienced tailor handsomely trimmed and bought at a bargain are offered cheap.

11. My brother caught the fish on a small hook baited with a minnow which we had for breakfast.

12. The speaker was addressing the crowd as I came in with great eloquence.

THE CRAIGIE HOUSE

LESSON 45

DESCRIPTION OF A BUILDING

Study carefully this picture of a fine old colonial mansion. It is the Craigie House at Cambridge, Massachusetts. During the Revolution it was for a time the headquarters of General Washington. Afterwards it became the residence of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

EXERCISE 45

From the picture, write a description of the Craigie House and its grounds.

LESSON 46

VARIOUS USES OF THE COMMA

An explanatory or **appositive modifier,** when it does not restrict the term modified or combine closely with it, is set off by the comma.

Jacob's favorite sons, Joseph and Benjamin, were Rachel's children.

William the Conqueror was an able ruler.

My brother Henry belongs to a boat club.

In the last two sentences, the connection between the appositive and the word it modifies is too close to admit of commas.

Words and phrases that modify the whole sentence are set off by the comma.

No, we could not find the place.

Certainly, the direction given us is wrong.

We shall, however, try again.

Nouns or pronouns used independently in address or pleonasm are set off by the comma. (For an explanation of pleonasm, see page 67.)

The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars.

The smith, a mighty man was he.

Phrases in absolute construction are set off by the comma.

The officers being absent, the men were thrown into confusion.

EXERCISE 46

I. *Tell why the commas are used in the following sentences:*

1. The conqueror of Mexico, Cortez, was cruel in his treatment of Montezuma.

2. Yes, you may remain here.

3. Gentlemen, there is a sublime and friendly Destiny by which the human race is guided.

4. Why, then, do we hesitate to swell our words to meet our needs?

5. Obviously, good English is exact English.

6. The cell being empty, he ran out into the yard.

7. Yet, ignorant as Goldsmith was, few writers have done more to make the first steps in the laborious road to knowledge easy and pleasant.

8. He wrote "The Good-natured Man," a piece which had a fate worse than it deserved.

9. The fable is, indeed, one of the worst that was ever constructed.

10. Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.

II. *Place commas where they are needed in the following sentences:*

1. Build thee more stately mansions O my soul.

2. Come dear old comrade you and I
   Will steal an hour from days gone by.

3. There are a good many gestures even that are more expressive than words.

4. I shall defer my visit to Faneuil Hall the cradle of American liberty.

5. The almighty dollar that great object of devotion

throughout our land seems to have no genuine devotees in these villages.

6. I stood in Venice on the Bridge of Sighs
A palace and a prison on each hand.

7. Roll on thou deep and dark blue ocean roll!

8. He was a good-natured man a humorist and a punster.

9. Heavy nets it is stated are let down into the water.

10. Upon making up his statement however he found that the man was right.

11. I am indeed sir a surgeon to old shoes.

12. I saw Henry the secretary on my way here.

13. He was at liberty after thirty years of anxiety and drudgery to indulge his constitutional indolence.

14. Lay thy soft hand upon my brow and cheek peaceful Sleep.

15. It is a penny-wise and pound-foolish policy so to speak.

LESSON 47

DICTATION; LETTER WRITING

EXERCISE 47

Study carefully the following note to Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, and write it from dictation:

Washington,
March 1, 1864.

My dear Sir,

A poor widow, by the name of Baird, has a son in the army, that for some offence has been sentenced to serve a long time without pay, or at most with very little pay. I do not like this punishment of withholding pay—it falls so very hard upon poor families. After he had been serving

in this way for several months, at the tearful appeal of the poor mother I made a direction that he be allowed to enlist for a new term on the same condition as others. She now comes, and says she cannot get it acted upon. Please do it.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

LESSON 48

THE BODY OF THE LETTER AND THE CLOSE; LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION

The salutation stands on a line by itself, and the **body of the letter** begins on the next line. It should begin just below the point where the salutation ends, thus:

Dear Mr. Walton,

It was kind of you to write us when you heard of Fred's accident.

The letter closes with one of the customary courteous expressions. This **complimentary close** begins about the middle of the page; it is followed by a comma. Only the first word begins with a capital. Do not use abbreviations in the complimentary close.

Here are some of the phrases used in the conclusion, the one employed depending upon the character of the letter and the intimacy of the writer with the person addressed:

Yours truly,	Yours sincerely,
Very truly yours,	Your friend,
Yours respectfully,	Yours affectionately,

A ridiculous blunder, sometimes made, is the use of "Yours *respectively*" for "Yours respectfully."

Letters of introduction are given unsealed to the person introduced. On the envelope is the name of the bearer of the letter as well as that of the one to whom it is directed. This at once explains the purpose of the letter to the person receiving it, and enables him to call his visitor by name as soon as the letter is delivered.

A Letter of Introduction

Medford, Oregon,
March 15, 1918.

Mr. Mittford Pitt,
Anadarko, Oklahoma.

Dear Mr. Pitt:

This will introduce Mr. James C. Cooper, a friend of mine, who has occasion to spend some time in your town, looking after a matter of business.

I shall regard as a personal favor any courtesy that you may be able to show Mr. Cooper.

Yours faithfully,
Andrew J. Lindsay

The Envelope

Mr. Mittford Pitt

Introducing Mr. James C. Cooper

EXERCISE 48

1. Write a letter of introduction for a schoolmate who is going to visit friends in a town where your cousin lives.

2. Write a brief letter from your cousin, in which he informs you that your letter of introduction has been delivered, and promises to show your schoolmate any courtesies that he can.

LESSON 49

A CONVERSATION ON CURRENT EVENTS

Much of the conversation of well-informed people is about the important events that are happening in the world. Such talk is profitable, and is far more interesting than mere chatter about trivial things. To participate in it, we must read intelligently the best magazines and newspapers.

With the purpose of taking part in a conversation on current events, read for several days the best daily, weekly, or monthly publications that you can procure. Each pupil should select one event or one subject and read about that. In choosing your topic and the facts to be told about it, ask yourself, "Is this subject important and appropriate, and will it interest the other pupils?" It is suggested that you sit in your seat and give your contribution to the conversation much as if you were telling it to a group of companions outside the schoolroom or to your family at home.

EXERCISE 49

Following the directions given above, prepare to take part

in a conversation on current events. As only a few minutes can be given to each topic, plan what you have to say so that it will not take too much time. Be prepared to answer any questions that your classmates or your teacher may ask.

To the Teacher. It will be well to repeat this exercise several times during the year.

LESSON 50

EXPOSITION

The Little Friendship Fire

This form of fire does less work than any other in the world. Yet it is far from being useless; and I, for one, should be sorry to live without it. Its only use is to make a visible center of interest where there are two or three anglers eating their lunch together, or to supply a kind of companionship to a lone fisherman. It is kindled and burned for no other purpose than to give you the sense of being at home and at ease. Why the fire should do this, I cannot tell, but it does.

You may build your friendship fire in almost any way that pleases you; but this is the way in which you shall build it best. You have no axe, of course, so you must look for the driest sticks that you can find. Do not seek them close beside the stream, for there they are likely to be water-soaked; but go back into the woods a bit and gather a good armful of fuel. Then break it, if you can, into lengths of about two feet, and construct your fire in the following fashion.

Lay two sticks parallel, and put between them a pile of dried grass, dead leaves, small twigs, and the paper in which your lunch was wrapped. Then lay two other sticks crosswise on top of your first pair. Strike your match and touch your kindlings. As the fire catches, lay on other pairs of

sticks, each pair crosswise to the pair that is below it, until you have a pyramid of flame. This is "a Micmac fire" such as the Indians make in the woods.

HENRY VAN DYKE, from *Fisherman's Luck*

EXERCISE 50

Explain one or more of the following processes. Choose one which is already familiar to you or one of which you can learn through reading, observation, or experiment.

1. How to make a certain kind of ice cream or ice.
2. How to make a certain kind of candy.
3. One way of making good coffee.
4. How to play some game that is a favorite with your schoolmates.
5. Some important play in baseball.
6. How to select seed corn.
7. How to catch a certain kind of fish.
8. How to make a kite.
9. How to analyze a sentence.
10. It may be that you have built a successful fire in the woods. Your method may have differed in some ways from that which Dr. van Dyke recommends for the little friendship fire. Explain fully how you built your fire.

LESSON 51

NARRATION

AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY

I was born February 12, 1809, in Hardin County, Kentucky. My parents were both born in Virginia, of undis-

tinguished families—second families, perhaps I should say. My mother, who died in my tenth year, was of a family of the name of Hanks, some of whom now reside in Adams, and others in Macon County, Illinois. My paternal grandfather, Abraham Lincoln, emigrated from Rockingham County, Virginia, to Kentucky about 1781 or 1782, where a year or two later he was killed by the Indians, not in battle, but by stealth, when he was laboring to open a farm in the forest. His ancestors, who were Quakers, went to Virginia from Berks County, Pennsylvania. An effort to identify them with the New England family of the same name ended in nothing more definite than a similarity of Christian names in both families, such as Enoch, Levi, Mordecai, Solomon, Abraham, and the like.

My father, at the death of his father, was but six years of age, and he grew up literally without education. He removed from Kentucky to what is now Spencer County, Indiana, in my eighth year. We reached our new home about the time the State came into the Union. It was a wild region, with many bears and other wild animals still in the woods. There I grew up. There were some schools, so called, but no qualification was ever required of a teacher beyond "readin', writin', and cipherin'" to the rule of three. If a straggler supposed to understand Latin happened to sojourn in the neighborhood, he was looked upon as a wizard. There was absolutely nothing to excite ambition for education. Of course, when I came of age I did not know much. Still, somehow, I could read, write, and cipher to the rule of three, but that was all. I have not been to school since. The little advance I now have upon this store of education I have picked up from time to time under the pressure of necessity.

I was raised to farm work, which I continued till I was twenty-two. At twenty-one I came to Illinois, Macon County. Then I got to New Salem, at that time in Sanga-

mon County, now in Menard County, where I remained a year as a sort of clerk in a store.

Then came the Black Hawk War; and I was elected a captain of volunteers, a success which gave me more pleasure than any I have had since. I went through the campaign; ran for the legislature the same year (1832), and was beaten —the only time I ever have been beaten by the people. The next and three succeeding biennial elections I was elected to the legislature. I was not a candidate afterward. During this legislative period I had studied law, and removed to Springfield to practise it. In 1846 I was once elected to the lower House of Congress. I was not a candidate for reëlection. From 1849 to 1854, both inclusive, I practised law more assiduously than ever before. I was always a Whig in politics; and was generally on the Whig electoral tickets, making active canvasses. I was losing interest in politics when the repeal of the Missouri Compromise aroused me again. What I have done since then is pretty well known.

If any personal description of me is thought desirable, it may be said I am, in height, six feet four inches, nearly; lean in flesh, weighing on an average one hundred and eighty pounds; dark complexion, with coarse black hair and gray eyes. No other marks or brands recollected.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, from a letter

This brief and modest story of his own life, up to 1859, is taken from a letter which Lincoln wrote to Mr. J. W. Fell in that year. Notice how clearly Lincoln tells the facts about himself which one would wish to know. A careful study of this narrative will show you what Lincoln thinks it important to tell, and how he makes his story clear.

EXERCISE 51

1. Make an outline of Lincoln's story of his life up to 1859.

2. Close your book and write the story of Lincoln's life from the outline which you have made.

3. Retell orally, in the first person, the story of Lincoln's life as he has told it.

4. Retell orally the narrative of Lincoln's career, using the third person.

LESSON 52

NARRATION: BIOGRAPHY

EXERCISE 52

Using Lincoln's sketch of his life as a model, write a similar sketch of the career of some famous man or woman whom you admire. Use the third person in telling the story. Washington, Benjamin Franklin, Daniel Boone, Robert E. Lee, Theodore Roosevelt, Susan B. Anthony, and Helen Keller are characters about whom you may wish to write. However, your choice is not limited to these. You will need to consult your histories and some of the books in your school library.

Make a careful outline before beginning to write. Tell the events in the life of your subject in the order in which they happened. Select the occurrences that are interesting and important.

Write your composition as well as you can; then go over it carefully and improve it wherever you can. Be sure that your paragraphing follows the directions for paragraphs on page 195. Some of your sentences may not sound well. Reconstruct them until they are perfectly clear and read

smoothly. Finally, when all your corrections are completed, make the neatest and best copy of which you are capable.

LESSON 53

NARRATION: AUTOBIOGRAPHY

EXERCISE 53

Using Lincoln's autobiography as a model, write your own autobiography up to the present.

A little thought will furnish you with sufficient material. Tell something of your parents and more remote ancestors, and of the different places where you have lived. Narrate the different steps in your education. Tell of any adventures that have happened to you. What have you done besides going to school? Have you earned money? Are you especially interested in any one subject, as electricity, farming, cooking, or fishing and hunting? What books have you enjoyed most? What trips have you taken? Perhaps you have taken some part in games or athletics which will furnish material for your autobiography.

LESSON 54

PUNCTUATION: COLON, DASH, PARENTHESIS

The Colon:

1. The colon is used before a statement that is formally introduced.

To Lentulus and Gellius bear this message: "Their graves are measured."

2. The colon is used after the salutation in a business or formal letter.

Gentlemen:

We have not received the goods.

The Dash:

1. Use the dash where such words as *namely, that is, as,* or equivalent expressions are omitted.

There are two certain things in this world—taxes and death.

2. Use the dash where the sentence breaks off abruptly.

I said—I know not what I said.

3. The dash is frequently used, instead of marks of parenthesis, to set off expressions which have a very slight connection with the rest of the sentence.

For the first time in weeks—years, it seemed to me—something of the old cheerfulness mingled with our conversation around the evening lamp.

Commas and dashes together are sometimes used to set off these parenthetical expressions.

The too frequent use of the dash is a common fault. *Do not use the dash needlessly.*

Marks of Parenthesis:

Marks of parenthesis are used to inclose words that have no essential connection with the rest of the sentence.

I fastened one end of the rope (it was a few yards cut from Kitty Collins's clothesline) to the bedpost nearest the window.

Use marks of parenthesis sparingly. The need of them often indicates that the sentence should be recast to avoid the expression inclosed within the marks of parenthesis.

EXERCISE 54

Study the punctuation of the following sentences and write them from dictation:

1. Toward the end of her life,—she lived to be ninety-nine,—she grew very fretful and capricious about her food.

2. The Oldest Inhabitant (what would become of a New England town or village without its oldest inhabitant?) overhauled his almanacs and pronounced it the deepest snow we had had for twenty years.

3. Her proper sphere in life—and the one to which she afterwards attained—was the sawdust arena of a traveling circus.

4. To speak critically, I never received more than one or two letters in my life—I wrote this some years ago—that were worth the postage.

5. All I could say, then, with respect to farming on a large scale (I have always cultivated a garden), was that I had my seeds ready.

6. On the last morning of his life, he wrote these words: "I have named none to their disadvantage."

7. A Persian's heaven is eas'ly made:
   'Tis but black eyes and lemonade.

8. If you choose to represent the various parts in life by holes upon a table, of different shapes,—some circular, some triangular, some square, some oblong,—and the persons acting these parts by bits of wood of similar shapes, we shall generally find that the triangular person has got into the

square hole, the oblong into the triangular, and a square person has squeezed himself into a round hole.

9. No one minds what Jeffrey says—it is not more than a week ago that I heard him speak disrespectfully of the equator.

10. Perhaps it was right to dissemble your love,
But—why did you kick me downstairs?

LESSON 55

BUSINESS LETTERS

Since much of the world's business is done by correspondence, the ability to write good, effective business letters is in great demand. Business letters should be absolutely clear. Be careful to say what you mean in such a way that it will be impossible to misunderstand it. The letter should be short and to the point, but it should always be courteous. Special attention should be given to legibility. If you write for information or to ask some other favor, inclose a stamp for reply. Inclose the stamp loose; do not stick it to the letter.

Frequently it is necessary to send money in letters. It is unsafe to send bills or coins by mail, although small silver pieces in a coin card, having openings cut to fit the money, may be sent safely. Postage stamps may be sent for small sums, say for fifty cents or less. The safe ways of sending money by mail are (1) post-office or express money order, (2) bank draft, (3) personal check. The check should be made out to the order of the person or firm to whom it is sent, not left

so that it is payable to bearer. The objections to sending personal checks are that some firms will not accept them, and that sometimes the recipient of the check, if he lives in a distant city, must pay exchange when he cashes it.

EXERCISE 55

Study the following letter ordering goods, and then copy it accurately:

115 South Detroit Street,
Warsaw, Indiana,
September 12, 1917.

Williams & Conover,
432 Wells Street,
Chicago, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

Please send me by prepaid American Express the following articles selected from your Catalogue No. 17:

Expert 6½ foot Steel Bait Casting Rod	$1.90
Kentucky Pattern Jeweled Satin Finished Reel	2.50
Kewell Stewart's Famous Spoon, 4½ inches	.65
Beaver Silk Casting Line, No. 5	1.00
2 Phantom Minnows, 3 inches long, 30¢ each	.60
Total	$6.65

I inclose a post-office money order for the amount of this purchase.

Yours truly,
HAWKINS UNDERWOOD

LESSON 56

LETTER WRITING: THE SIGNATURE AND THE SUPERSCRIPTION

The **signature** consists of the full name, though in case the letter is written to a near relative or friend, only the Christian name need be used. In writing to a stranger, a woman prefixes *Miss* or *Mrs.* in parenthesis, so that the person receiving the letter may know how to address the reply. A married woman sometimes signs her name twice, using her Christian name and then, inclosed in parenthesis, her name as wife, thus:

Clara Young
(Mrs. George T. Young)

The signature should be written plainly so that your correspondent will not have to puzzle over the name of the person to whom his reply should be addressed. The signature is begun somewhat farther to the right than the complimentary close. No period is necessary after the signature.

The **superscription**, or direction on the envelope, begins slightly above the middle of the envelope and not far from the left edge. The different lines should be the same distance apart, and the beginning of each line should be at a uniform distance from the beginning of the preceding line, so that there will be a slant, as in No. 1 below. On the first line stand the name and the title, if one is used; on the second, the door number and the street, or the number of the rural route or post-

office box; on the third, the name of the city or town; on the fourth, the name of the state. Special directions, like "To be forwarded" or "In care of Mr. Henry Woods," may be placed in the lower left-hand corner.

It is best not to abbreviate the name of the state or the words *street* and *avenue*. Commas may be placed after each line except the last, but it is also good form to omit them. It is allowable to use the "block" form of address, illustrated in No. 2 below.

1

Miss Edith Rumford,
241 Main Street,
Winsted,
Connecticut.

2

Mr. J. F. Cartt
Box 91
Siloam Springs
Arkansas

3

After 5 days return to
Harland J. Lupton, Attorney,
Columbia, South Carolina.

Most business men have a return direction printed in the upper left-hand corner of their envelopes, as in No. 3 above. If the letter cannot be delivered, this direction insures that it will be sent back promptly to the writer. Thousands of letters are mailed with incorrect or incomplete superscription, and with no directions for returning to the sender. For this reason, it is always well to write on the envelope the full address of the sender. Mistakes may be made through carelessness even in a familiar address; a return direction is very quickly added and may save the postal clerk some trouble and you much inconvenience.

EXERCISE 56

1. Your mother is away on a visit. Write her a letter, telling her what has happened at home in her absence. Think of the things she wants to know about.

2. One of your schoolmates has gone away for a week. Write to this schoolmate, relating the news of the school.

3. A friend of yours has had an accident that will confine him to the house for several days. Write to him, expressing regret for his misfortune. Tell him that you are sending him by mail a copy of Kipling's "First Jungle Book" (or some other book) to read while he is shut in.

LESSON 57

COMPOSITION: DESCRIPTION OF A MOTION PICTURE

EXERCISE 57

"A few days ago I saw a motion picture that was worth while." Let this be the first sentence of a composition about a good motion picture which you have seen. If more than a few days have passed since you saw the picture, change the sentence to fit the facts. Select a picture that deals with commerce, manufacture, travel, current events, or something else that is both educational and interesting. Describe the picture just as you would describe it to some friend who had not seen it.

If you have not lately seen a motion picture that you wish to write about, describe an entertainment or a series of pictures from your geography or some other book.

LESSON 58

EXPOSITION

Naturalization

Naturalization is the process by which a person born in a foreign country may become a citizen of the United States. The United States law requires that a person who wishes to become a citizen must have lived in the United States for five years, and he must declare his intention to become a citizen at least two years before he may become naturalized. This is done before a United States or a state court. The applicant is then given his first papers, showing that he has applied for naturalization. Two years or more after receiving these first papers, he must again go before the court and swear that he gives up his citizenship in his own country, and accepts citizenship in the United States. He is then given a certificate showing that he is a citizen of the United States and entitled to all the privileges of a citizen.

This is an explanatory, or expository, paragraph. Read it carefully and see if it gives you a clear idea of the process of naturalization. Try to sum up the thought of the paragraph in a single sentence.

EXERCISE 58

Using the paragraph on naturalization as a model, select one of the topics below and explain what it is. Be sure that you know exactly what your subject is before you begin to write. Make your exposition so clear that a pupil in your grade who knows nothing of your subject will understand it after hearing your explanation. Some of the topics are treated in the textbooks which you use in school. The necessary in-

formation on other topics you will probably find in some book in the school library.

1. A Tourniquet.
2. Microbes.
3. A Vacuum Cleaner.
4. A Fireless Cooker.
5. The Merit System in the Civil Service.
6. The Initiative.
7. The Referendum.
8. The Sun in Relation to the Change of Seasons.
9. The Electoral College.
10. Protective Tariff and Revenue Tariff.
11. A Machine Gun.

LESSON 59

LETTER WRITING

EXERCISE 59

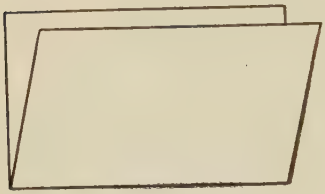
Write a business letter, complete and correct in all of its parts, including the direction on the envelope.

LESSON 60

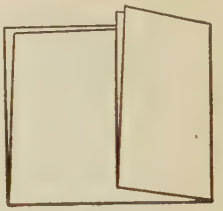
FOLDING THE LETTER

An awkwardly folded letter makes a bad impression; but correct folding is a simple matter. The important thing is to use an envelope which will fit the sheet of paper when it has been properly folded. A sheet of business stationery, about $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11 inches, fits nicely

a No. 6¾ envelope, which is about 6¾ inches long and 3⅝ inches wide. Such a sheet is folded in this manner:

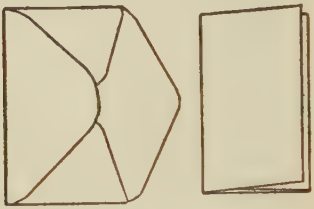


1



2

3



4

No. 1. With the sheet lying before you, fold the lower half over the upper half.

No. 2. Now fold the right-hand third of this sheet over the middle third.

No. 3. Then fold the left-hand third over the middle.

No. 4. Insert the folded letter into the envelope with the folded part toward the bottom of the envelope, so that the open edges will be near the flap.

If you use a sheet as wide as the envelope is long, it will not require the first fold that is given the full-size sheet, but will be folded twice, as in Nos. 2 and 3.

The four-page sheet, upon which social letters are often written, is folded by turning the lower part over the upper.

EXERCISE 60

There should be in the classroom, supplied either by the school or by the pupils, samples of various kinds of stationery, both paper and envelopes.

1. Take a sheet of paper approximately $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches by 11 inches; fold it to fit an envelope $6\frac{3}{4}$ inches long by $3\frac{5}{8}$ inches wide.

2. Take a sheet about $8\frac{1}{2}$ by $6\frac{1}{4}$; fold it for a No. $6\frac{1}{2}$ envelope (an envelope $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches long).

3. Fold a sheet $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11 to go into a No. 10 envelope.

4. Fold a sheet of social stationery, about $5\frac{1}{8}$ by $6\frac{1}{2}$, to fit an envelope about $5\frac{1}{2}$ by $3\frac{1}{2}$.

5. Fold a sheet of business paper, memo size, $8\frac{1}{2}$ by $5\frac{1}{2}$, to fit a No. $6\frac{3}{4}$ envelope.

6. Fold a sheet $8\frac{1}{2}$ by $7\frac{1}{2}$ to fit a No. $6\frac{3}{4}$ envelope. (Fold about two inches of the lower part of the sheet over the upper part. Then proceed as with a regular letter sheet.)

LESSON 61

SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS; USE OF THE DICTIONARY

In reading what you have written, you will often find that you have used some word which does not exactly express your meaning. You must search your memory for the right word. If you cannot think of the word you want, consult the dictionary.

Sometimes you will find that you have repeated a word two or three times within the space of a few lines. Although this repetition may sound awkward, you should let the word stand if it is necessary for clearness or for the exact expression of your meaning. Frequently you will find that you can substitute a word of similar meaning without sacrificing clearness, and that the substitution will improve the sound of your sentence.

Synonyms are words that have the same or nearly the same meaning; as, courage, bravery; loving, affectionate. **Antonyms** are words that are opposite in meaning; as, good, bad; ignorant, educated. Good dictionaries will give you all the information you need about synonyms and antonyms. The larger dictionaries give the synonyms of a word, and explain the different shades of meaning of these synonyms when it is desirable to make a distinction among them.

EXERCISE 61

I. *Write ten pairs of synonyms.*

II. *Write ten pairs of antonyms.*

III. *Look up the meanings of these words* in Webster's *Secondary School Dictionary* or some other good dictionary of similar scope. Learn all the synonyms you can for each of these words, and be able to tell the difference in meaning between the word here given and its synonyms:

rich	contemptible	examination
powerful	contemptuous	spite
honest	booty	cross (adjective)
honesty	animated	awkward
frank (adjective)	massacre	allow

IV. *By the help of the dictionary, distinguish in meaning between the words in the following pairs and use each word in a sentence:*

house, home	healthy, wholesome
famous, notorious	knowledge, wisdom
character, reputation	continuous, continual

LESSON 62

ARGUMENT

The Practical Value of Studying Sanitation

The boy who learns to kill mosquitoes and to spare the ladybirds will probably not be richer for it when he comes to make his will; but the community that learns to kill its mosquitoes and spare its ladybirds will surely have an incalculable balance in its favor. The occasional individual who learns to avoid spitting is still exposed to infection from the spitting of others; but the community that first eliminates spitting and pencil-licking will probably be the first to eliminate the white plague.

If an understanding of the relations of bacteria and ventilation and diet and work to people's health will lead a generation of citizens to oppose with all their might the building of unsanitary dwellings, the operation of ill-ventilated factories, the marketing of unwholesome foods and quack remedies, and the overworking of men, women, and children, —such an understanding is worth all it can cost. No other knowledge given to all the children of a nation will do so much for the general welfare as an appreciation of the relations between man and the organic factors of his environment.

Benjamin Gruenberg

In the above paragraphs, the writer is giving reasons, or **arguments,** why boys and girls should study sanitation. He argues that if the children are taught the need of killing mosquitoes, for example, the community in which they grow up will in time kill its mosquitoes. He wishes to convince the reader that an understanding of the principles of sanitation is of the greatest importance for the welfare of the nation.

EXERCISE 62

1. State several good reasons for the study of geography.
2. Give some good reasons for the study of history.
3. What are the best reasons you can think of why one should acquire a good handwriting?
4. Give reasons why a girl should learn to cook.
5. Give reasons why a boy should learn something of carpentry.
6. What are Mr. Gruenberg's illustrations of the value of studying sanitation and hygiene?

LESSON 63

DESCRIPTION OF A PAINTING

The frontispiece of this book is a reproduction of a painting entitled "A Reading from Homer" by Lawrence Alma-Tadema, who was distinguished especially for his pictures on Greek and Roman subjects. He was a native of the Netherlands, but spent a large part of his life in England.

Turn to the frontispiece and study it. The picture

shows a group of young people listening to one of the famous stories of Greek heroes that had been told in ancient times by the blind poet Homer. The man at the right is reading the story from a scroll, such as was used long before the days of book-making.

Notice the Greek costumes, the harp, and the view of the sea in the background. What stories of Homer do you recall—about Achilles, the Trojan War, or the adventures of Ulysses during his wanderings after the war? Choose the story which you imagine the people in the picture are listening to.

EXERCISE 63

Write a description of Alma-Tadema's "A Reading from Homer."

LESSON 64

ARGUMENT

THE STUDY OF AGRICULTURE IS MORE VALUABLE THAN NATURE STUDY

When the pupil is sent to study the tree or the insect, the most that he can do is to observe and record. This is all good in its way, but the tree, the bird, and the insect are sufficient unto themselves, or, at least, are in no sense dependent upon the boy, nor are they of much consequence to him or his.

When, however, the boy is set to studying the pig, the matter of utility at once enters in as a factor of the problem. The pig is worth something and the boy can see it. He can see how the bare existence of the pig is dependent upon regular feeding which he himself may give; and how the

pig, when he is brought to a finish, is not only capable of contributing to the support of the body, but can be sold for money with which the boy may possess himself of something dear to his heart. He sees, in other words, how he himself may influence the production of pigs; and if he has even a fair share of the creative activity which most boys possess, it will be stimulated into action by the prospect.

If he is set to studying the cow and her milk, especially if he learns how to compare one kind of milk with another, or if his attention is even directed to the conditions under which different kinds may be produced, he sees in concrete ways how Nature behaves in her workshop, what it is that Nature is doing day by day, and how it is that these activities are connected with the affairs of men. He cannot help seeing how the family that owns good cows has an advantage in the world over those whose cows are poor or ill-fed.

If he is set to studying corn, he knows at once that he is dealing with a crop whose management is in the hands of man; with something that does not exist for itself alone and would not and could not exist except for man's attention.

All this helps to stimulate activity and productive energy on the part of the child, which is one of the things we need to nourish when we take children out of real life for a considerable length of time and put them into the schoolroom.

EUGENE DAVENPORT

Professor Davenport is here trying to prove that the study of agriculture is of more value than nature study. A complete outline of his argument would be somewhat like the following:

The study of agriculture is more valuable than nature study

I. Because agriculture stimulates activity that is of value in connection with actual life.

1. In studying trees, birds, and insects, the pupil merely observes and makes records.
2. In studying pigs, the pupil sees that he can help in raising pigs and can profit by the sale.
3. In studying cows, he sees that he can learn how to get the best kind of milk.
4. In studying corn, he sees that the farmer can help to secure a successful crop.

You will see that this selection from Professor Davenport makes one main argument for the proposition which he is trying to prove. He gives one illustration of the lack of practical value in nature study, and three illustrations of the connection between agriculture and life which gives to agriculture its interest.

EXERCISE 64

1. Give three or four statements to show that summer is a more pleasant season than winter.
2. Give three or four illustrations to show that winter is preferable to summer.

LESSON 65

DEBATING

A **debate** is the discussion of a subject about which there is a difference of opinion.

In conducting an organized discussion, or debate, certain rules are generally followed. First, a statement

of the subject to be debated is made; as, "Resolved, that we should establish a school paper." Arguments which aim to prove that the statement is true are on the **affirmative** side; those tending to prove that the statement is not true are on the **negative** side. Speakers are chosen for each side, to give the arguments for that side. Each speaker, at the end of his talk, sums up what he has said. Sometimes each debater is allowed to speak twice—once to give the arguments for his side and once to answer those of his opponents.

Let us suppose that a debate is to take place in the eighth grade of the small town of Floralhurst. The question for debate is: *Resolved, that the school district of Floralhurst should vote bonds for the erection of a new school building.* Although each person taking part in the debate argues on only one side of the question, he studies the arguments for both sides. He gets as many facts bearing on the proposition as he can. He is careful to verify every assertion he intends to make.

Let us consider how a speaker for the affirmative side prepares himself. After he has consulted the superintendent, the teachers, perhaps some members of the Board of Education, and others who are well-informed on the educational situation in his town, he reviews carefully all that he has learned. He selects the strongest arguments presented by those who favor building a new school. It is possible that he may think of some good reason that no one else has advanced. Then he arranges his arguments in the best form that he can. He is careful not to run two arguments together and not to put under two headings the statements that really belong under one.

He writes a clear brief statement of each of his arguments, which may appear like this:

Floralhurst should have a new school building

1. Because the number of children going to school has increased so much that the present building is badly overcrowded.

2. The school playground is not large enough to allow all the pupils necessary exercise.

3. The present building is located in the east part of town, making too long a walk for pupils living in the west part.

4. Our building has no gymnasium and no assembly room.

5. Floralhurst can afford to erect a new building as it has no school debt.

From this outline, or **brief,** the speaker would build a speech somewhat like that which follows. He might write out his speech in full, being careful to use simple language and to make every statement so clear that it cannot easily be misunderstood. After writing the speech, correcting it, and making a clean copy, he might commit it to memory.

But instead of writing the arguments in the exact words in which he meant to give them, the speaker might stand with his outline in hand and practice his speech many times. He would probably not use exactly the same words each time, but he would become familiar with his arguments. They would be clear in his mind, and on the day of the debate he would be prepared to speak from brief notes.

An Argument for a New School Building in Floralhurst

The School District of Floralhurst should vote bonds for the erection of a new school building because the present building is badly overcrowded. We have twelve rooms and an enrollment of 606. This makes an average of about fifty pupils to each room. This is far too many for good work, for comfort, or for health. A room so crowded cannot be well ventilated. A new building would enable the district to put the proper number of pupils in each room. We would then have room for more teachers, and each teacher would have only as many pupils as she could properly teach.

The playground of our present building is much too small for the number of pupils. This makes it impossible to play many games we would like to play. The crowded condition of the playground is also the cause of accidents. If we build a new school, it will have a good playground; and there will then be plenty of room on our playground for the pupils who remain at this building.

Our present building is in the east part of town. The pupils who live in the west part of town have too long a walk to school; many of them have to walk fifteen blocks, or even more. The new building could be built in the west part of town. We should then have schools located conveniently for all.

Our present building has no gymnasium and no assembly room. These could be provided in a new school building. With the pupils living in the west part of town in the new building, there would be vacant rooms here. The superintendent and the president of the school board say that it would then be possible to take down a partition between two of the rooms of this building and make a very good assembly room. By a similar change, a room could be made for gymnastic exercises.

Floralhurst can well afford to erect another school. It is as wealthy as the average town of its size. Our school district is out of debt. The last of the bonds which we owed on this building were paid off two years ago.

Therefore, because our school building is overcrowded; because the playground is not large enough; because the children from the west part of town have too far to come; because we have no gymnasium and no assembly room; because Floralhurst is wealthy and has no school debt, we believe that the school district should vote bonds for a new building.

EXERCISE 65

1. How would you gather material on the question for debate in this lesson?

2. What are other ways of gathering material on a different kind of question?

3. For a young speaker, what are the advantages of writing the speech in full and committing it to memory?

4. What are the advantages of fixing the arguments firmly in your mind without trying to memorize the exact words to be used when you rise to speak?

LESSON 66

LETTER WRITING

EXERCISE 66

Write a letter of friendship, observing all the forms. Keep in mind the aim of a friendly letter—to interest the person addressed and to give him pleasure. It will be all the better if the letter written for this exercise is a real letter which you intend to mail after it has been corrected and copied.

LESSON 67

DICTATION

Lexington, Virginia, December 14, 1869.

General J. B. Gordon, President,
Southern Life Insurance Company,
Atlanta, Georgia.

My dear General:

I have received your letter of the 3d inst., and am duly sensible of the kind feelings which prompted your proposal. It would be a great pleasure to me to be associated with you, Hampton, B. H. Hill, and the other good men whose names I see on your list of directors, but I feel that I ought not to abandon the position I hold at Washington College at this time, or as long as I can be of service to it. Thanking you for your kind consideration, to which I know I am alone indebted for your proposition to become president of the Southern Life Insurance Company, and with kindest regards to Mrs. Gordon and my best wishes for yourself, I am

Very truly yours,
R. E. Lee

EXERCISE 67

Study General Lee's letter carefully and write it from dictation.

LESSON 68

NOTES AND INVITATIONS

Notes

There are many occasions when, instead of writing a letter, we write a brief, informal message, or note.

These notes are used when a person wishes to communicate with some one in the same office building or factory, and on many other occasions. We sometimes have occasion to write a brief note to a neighbor and send it by a messenger. The written excuses brought by pupils who have been absent are sometimes notes rather than letters.

A note should be written with attention to neatness, legibility, spelling, grammar, and good form. It dispenses with some of the parts of a letter. The following specimens illustrate the shortened form in which notes are written.

1

March 8

Dear Miss Kincaid,

George was ill yesterday and was not able to be at school. Please excuse his absence.

Yours respectfully,

Mary H. Lockhart

2

May 11

Ben:

Hal and I have gone to Steen s Lake on our bicycles. We expect you to come on the afternoon train. We will meet you at the station.

Everett

3

Dear Mrs. Colby,

Will you kindly send me by Mary your recipe for orange cake? I will copy it and return it to you at once. I shall be greatly obliged.

Kate Palmer

Informal Invitations

Informal invitations are simply notes. The place and the date are usually written in the lower left-hand corner. The year need not be given, and the day of the month is sometimes spelled out instead of being written in figures.

1

Dear Martin,

Mother wants you to come to see us again before you leave town. We should be glad to have you take dinner with us and spend the evening next Tuesday, the fourth.

Wilson King

Montrose,
September the first.

2

Dear Wilson,

I thank you and your mother for your kind invitation. I shall be glad to take dinner with you next Tuesday evening.

Martin R. Adams

Montrose,
September the second.

Formal Invitations

Formal invitations and replies are written in the third person. They have no heading, salutation, or signature. The date, written in words instead of figures, is placed in the lower left-hand corner. Be careful not to use the first or second person in these notes.

The reply to a note of invitation should always be

written in the same form as the invitation. Use the formal style only when the invitation is in that form.

1

Mr. and Mrs. Vernon Reed request the pleasure of Miss Black's presence at dinner Monday evening, October the twelfth, at seven o'clock.

Hillcrest

October the sixth

2

Miss Black accepts with pleasure the kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. Vernon Reed for Monday evening, October the twelfth, at seven o'clock.

11 Jefferson Street

October the seventh

EXERCISE 68

1. You have arranged to spend Saturday fishing with a friend, but are called away in haste on Friday evening. Write a note to your friend, explaining why you cannot keep the engagement.

2. Write an informal invitation.

3. Write an informal acceptance.

4. Write an informal note expressing regret because you are unable to accept an invitation.

5. Your class at school is to give a special program for Thanksgiving or some other occasion. Your teacher and your principal permit you to invite the grade just below yours to be present at the program. In the name of the teacher and pupils of your class, write a formal invitation to be read to the pupils of the grade below.

6. Write a formal acceptance in the name of the teacher and pupils of the grade below yours, replying to the invitation.

7. Your rural school is to have a school fair. The parents of each pupil are to be invited. In the name of the school, write a formal invitation to your parents.

8. The pupils in your room have decided to have a picnic and to invite your teacher. Decide whether you prefer to send her a formal or an informal invitation; then write the invitation.

LESSON 69

ARGUMENT

EXERCISE 69

1. Make an outline giving three or four good arguments on each side of the first statement, or proposition, on page 285. State each argument in a clear and complete sentence. Be sure that you do not put down as a separate argument something included in another heading though stated in different words.

2. Make outlines giving a few arguments on each side of five other propositions selected from the list on page 285.

3. Select the proposition that you have found most interesting. Think over your outline carefully and write a paragraph on each heading, or argument. In expanding your arguments, you must prove the statement that you have made. You may give examples or instances, and may quote figures or facts to support the statement. In Professor Davenport's argument for the teaching of agriculture rather than nature study (page 273), he gives four illustrations of his statement that agriculture is more practical than nature study.

4. Prepare a talk to the class on the proposition selected. With your outline in hand, make your speech. If you have studied the question thoroughly, you will have little trouble in finding something to say in developing your points.

LESSON 70

DEBATING

EXERCISE 70

Some of the following subjects may be used for oral debates. These debates may be conducted in different ways. If two or three represent each side, it must be arranged that each speaker will devote his time to a special point so that the speeches will not repeat or overlap. If the debate is open to all in the room, everybody must be prepared to give a brief talk on the side of his choice, when called upon.

Propositions for Argument

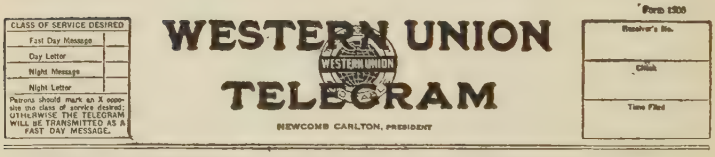
1. Resolved, that we should establish a school paper.
2. Resolved, that military drill should be given in grammar schools.
3. Resolved, that women should be given the right to vote.
4. Resolved, that our school should form a baseball team.
5. Resolved, that football should be played in this school.
6. Resolved, that the army and the navy of the United States should be increased.
7. Resolved, that the opportunities for young men at the present time are greater than they were a half century ago.
8. Resolved, that all the men of the United States, unless

physically disqualified, should be required to serve for two years in the army.

9. Resolved, that the President of the United States should be elected for six years and should not be eligible to succeed himself.

LESSON 71

TELEGRAMS



CLASS OF SERVICE DESIRED
Fast Day Message
Day Letter
Night Message
Night Letter
Patrons should mark an X opposite the class of service desired; OTHERWISE THE TELEGRAM WILL BE TRANSMITTED AS A FAST DAY MESSAGE.

WESTERN UNION TELEGRAM

NEWCOMB CARLTON, PRESIDENT

Form 1206
Receiver's No.
Check
Time Filed

Send the following telegram, subject to the terms on back hereof, which are hereby agreed to

Medora, Illinois, May 8, 1917.

Charles S. Dean,
1415 Harrison Boulevard,
Kansas City, Missouri.

Meet me at Union Station at ten o'clock Thursday morning.

Raymond Oliver

Brevity and clearness are the qualities a telegram should have. A fixed rate is charged for ten words, and each additional word costs extra. **Night letters** may be sent by telegraph for delivery the next morning, fifty words or less being transmitted at the rate charged for ten words by day. **Day letters,** which are taken with

the understanding that their transmission is subordinated to that of regular telegrams, may be sent for one and one-half times the night letter rate.

EXERCISE 71

1. Flowers ordered as decoration for a school entertainment have not been received at the expected time. Write a telegram to the florist, asking if they may be expected in time to be used.

2. Coming home from a visit, you have missed connections and will not arrive at the time when your parents expect you. Write a telegram to your father explaining the situation.

3. A friend has written that he is to pass through your city and asks you to meet him at the station. Send him a night letter, asking him to arrange to stop over for a day's visit.

4. You receive a telegram making an offer of a position at a certain salary and are asked to reply by telegram. Write the telegram in which the offer is made.

5. The salary offered is less than you can accept. Write a telegram in reply to the offer.

6. There has been a windstorm in which property was destroyed and people were injured. Send a telegram to your mother, who is away from home, telling her that the family are all safe and that your property is not damaged.

7. In the absence of your father, Mr. J. C. Newell wants to buy a certain horse on the farm. Write a telegram to your father, asking if he will sell the horse and at what price.

8. A bookseller finds that he must have at once twenty copies of Kipling's "Just So Stories." Send his telegram to Doubleday, Page and Company, Garden City, New York, ordering the books.

9. You find, on arriving at a town where you are to enter a new school, that you have left behind the record of your previous grades. Telegraph home asking to have the record sent you, and telling where the papers are to be found.

10. A speaker who was to make an address at the graduating exercises of your school has been taken ill two days before the date of the graduation. Send a night letter to another man, explaining the circumstances, and asking him if he can speak and what his terms for the service will be.

LESSON 72

WRITING ADVERTISEMENTS

You know how attractive are many of the advertisements that appear in newspapers and magazines. A great many of these advertisements are the work of highly trained specialists and combine the arts of the writer, the illustrator, and the printer with the judgment of the business man. The simpler kinds of advertisements, however, can be written by any one after a little study and practice.

Many of you will have need to employ the advertising columns of the papers to greater or less extent. The writing of brief advertisements is valuable training in the selection of essential facts and in compactness of expression.

Study the advertisements that appear in this lesson. As a further preparation for the exercise which follows, every member of the class should bring to school a few good short advertisements cut from newspapers or magazines.

YOUNG MAN attending business college needs employment outside school hours to save expenses; can do housework and tend furnace. Bell Grand 624, Home Main 1073.

LOST: a Necklace—At the Lyric Theater or Sedgwick Courthouse, coral necklace, two strands graduated coral beads; liberal reward. Return to 793 Lombard St., Wichita, Kans. Phone Home West 127

FOR RENT, WITH BOARD—One large, light room with adjoining dressing room. Southeastern exposure. Convenient to trains and trolley. Every convenience, including telephone. Reasonable rates. Mrs. Steen, Morse Road, Hillsdale.

FOR SALE: 40 ACRES, 2 miles northeast of Pleasant Hill on Skaggs and Tuttle Roads; all smooth land; no waste or breaks; all in grass and meadow; new hay barn, no other improvements; best location in county; price $137.50 per acre; will carry $3,000 or more on terms. Frank K. Elkins, Pleasant Hill, Mo.

EXERCISE 72

1. You have lost a purse. Write an advertisement of your loss.

2. You have found a purse. Advertise it.

3. Write an advertisement for a pin, a watch, or some other article that has been lost. Describe the lost article accurately.

4. Suppose that you desire to purchase a secondhand typewriter. Write a want advertisement, naming the make or makes that you prefer.

5. Write an advertisement for some position that you would like to secure.

6. You have a large hotbed and have raised more tomato, sweet potato, pepper, and cabbage plants than you need for your own use. You decide to try to sell your surplus by means of an advertisement in the local paper. Write the advertisement, giving prices.

7. Write an advertisement for a house to let. Describe the house truthfully and in such a way as to show its advantages.

8. Suppose that your school is to give a play. Write a short advertisement of the play. The advertisement should not only give the reader all the information he needs about the play, but should also help him to decide to attend.

LESSON 73

LETTERS OF APPLICATION

1224 North Twelfth Street,
Minneapolis, Minnesota,
June 9, 1918.

Mr. Willard French,
216 Lumber Exchange,
Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Dear Sir:

I read in to-day's "Tribune" your advertisement for an office boy. I should like to be considered an applicant for the place.

I am fourteen years old and have just completed the eighth grade of the Whittier School of this city. For information about my character and qualifications, I refer you to

Principal John D. Sullivan of the Whittier School and to Mr. Ross Foster, 2234 Channing Street, for whom I have worked.

If you care to have me do so, I will call on you at any time that is convenient for you.

Yours respectfully,

Robert Spore

EXERCISE 73

Study the letter given above, and using it as a model, apply for these positions:

1. A boy who lives in the country will attend high school in town this fall. He hears that Mr. Charles S. Bankhead, a grocer, needs a boy to work in his store after school in the afternoon and on Saturdays. Write a letter of application for this place.

2.
BOY— Wanted, bright office boy; prefer one who can use the typewriter; permanent position. Address G, 154, Star.

3.
MAN—Wanted a bright young man, 18 to 25 years, who can operate typewriter and do clerical work in a wholesale house; good opportunity for the right person; $9 to start; give references or schooling. Lemmon & Vanburg, 750 Kellar St., Los Angeles, California.

4.
WANTED—a clerk, 16 or 17, who knows a little typewriting; address with pen, giving references. A. B. Jaegersen, 802 Fidelity Bldg., Buffalo, N. Y.

5.
OFFICE BOY—Wanted; one who has had experience in filing and mailing letters; answer in own handwriting, stating

age, experience, reference, and salary wanted. Address G, 276, Star.

6.
CLERK—Young lady wanted for accounting department of manufacturing company. Must be good penman, rapid and accurate at figures. Give age and reference. Address Box 143, Herald.

LESSON 74

STUDY OF A SPEECH

Washington

America has furnished to the world the character of Washington! If our American institutions had done nothing else, that alone would have entitled them to the respect of mankind.

Washington! "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen!" Washington is all our own! The enthusiastic veneration and regard in which the people of the United States hold him, prove them to be worthy of such a countryman, while his reputation abroad reflects the highest honor on his country. I would cheerfully put the question to-day to the intelligence of Europe and the world: What character of the century, upon the whole, stands out in the relief of history, most pure, most respectable, most sublime? And I doubt not that, by a suffrage approaching to unanimity, the answer would be, "Washington!"

To him who denies or doubts whether our fervid liberty can be combined with law, with order, with the security of property, with the pursuits and advancement of happiness; to him who denies that our forms of government are capable of producing exaltation of soul and the passion of true glory:

to him who denies that we have contributed anything to the stock of great lessons and great examples—to all these I reply by pointing to Washington.

DANIEL WEBSTER

The above speech is a part of the oration delivered by Daniel Webster at the dedication of the Bunker Hill Monument at Boston, June 17, 1843. Eighteen years earlier he had delivered another masterly oration at the laying of the cornerstone of the monument. His speeches had strength and dignity, and were remarkable for clearness of statement.

EXERCISE 74

I. *Find in the dictionary the meaning of any words in this speech you cannot define, and be able to give these definitions in class.*

II. *Commit the speech to memory and repeat it standing before the class.*

LESSON 75

THE MINUTES OF A MEETING

Every club, society, corporation, or other organization keeps a record of each of its meetings. This record, written by the secretary, is called the **minutes**; it shows everything of importance that took place at each meeting. The minutes are referred to for the purpose of settling any disputed point as to what was done or agreed to by the society. They should, therefore, be accurate and should be written fully, simply, clearly.

At each meeting, the minutes of the previous meeting

are read by the secretary, and the president inquires if there is any objection to them. If there is no objection, the president says, "There being no objection to the minutes, they stand approved as read." If any member thinks that there is a mistake or an omission in the minutes, he rises, addresses the president, and calls attention to it. If the correction suggested ought to be made, the president orders the secretary to change the minutes accordingly. The minutes are then signed by the president and the secretary.

Here are the minutes of a meeting of the Audubon Society in a public school:

The Audubon Society of the Hawthorne School met in Room 12, Thursday afternoon, May 1, at three o'clock. The roll call showed twenty-five members present.

After a song was sung, Charles Sedgwick gave a talk on "The Baltimore Oriole." Mary Harwood read a paper on "The Value of Birds to the Farmer."

On motion of George Hamilton, a committee of three was appointed to report the number of bird houses put up this spring in the neighborhood of the school and the names of the persons who put them up. The President appointed as this committee George Hamilton, Edith Sayre, and Dorothy Hemphill.

The Treasurer, Carl Jacobi, made a report showing that there was $2.40 in the treasury and that there were unpaid dues amounting to 50 cents.

There being no further business, the society adjourned to meet Thursday afternoon, May 15.

William Parmalee, President
Frances Cook, Secretary

EXERCISE 75

1. Write the minutes of a real or supposed meeting of a society organized in your school.

2. Write the minutes of a meeting of a debating society organized in the Franklin Rural School. Give the question for debate, the names of the debaters, the names of the judges, and the winning side.

3. Suppose that there is an athletic association in your school. Write the minutes of a meeting at which new officers were elected for the next term of three months. Give the names of the officers elected and the positions to which they were chosen.

ERRORS OF SPEECH

RULE	CORRECT FORM
1. Subject of verb should be in nominative case. (pp. 105, 116)	John and *he* are good friends. *Who* do you think is coming?
2. Attribute complement should be in nominative case. (p. 105)	The first ones there were *he* and *I*.
3. Object of verb should be in objective case. (pp. 106, 115)	*Whom* do you think I saw? Will you excuse Mary and *me*?
4. Object of preposition should be in objective case. (pp. 106, 116)	They divided it between *her* and *me*. *Whom* are you looking for?
5. A pronoun should agree with its antecedent in number, gender, and person. (p. 116)	Each boy picked up *his* books. (*not* their) The man *whom* I saw was lame. (*not* which)
6. Avoid the wrong formation of noun or pronoun. (pp. 114, 205)	He saw it *himself*. (*not* hisself)
7. A pronoun in the first person should not stand first in a series. (p. 149)	*You and I* have been chosen captains. (*not* I and you)
8. A split infinitive should not be used. (p. 55)	He told me to fill the basket quickly. (*not* to quickly fill)
9. A verb should agree with its subject in number and person. (pp. 96, 141, 149)	You *were* there. (*not* was) Mary and Jim *have* gone now. (*not* has)
10. Present tense should not be used for past tense. (p. 149)	He *gave* us some nuts. (*not* give)

RULE	CORRECT FORM
11. Past participle should not be used for past tense. (p. 131)	I *saw* him do it. (*not* I seen)
12. Past tense should not be used for past participle. (p. 131)	I have *gone* swimming. (*not* I have went)
13. Avoid the wrong formation of tense. (p. 205)	The rain has *driven* us in. (*not* drived *or* druv) You *ought* to answer him. (*not* you had ought)
14. Avoid using unnecessary words. (pp. 148, 205)	He *has* red hair. (*not* has got) Bob lost a skate. (*not* Bob, he lost)
15. *Don't* should not be used as the contraction of *does not.* (p. 140)	He *doesn't* play fairly.
16. *Ain't* is an incorrect form. (p. 149)	It *isn't* here. *Am I not* right?
17. Indicative should not be used for subjunctive mood. (p. 149)	If I *were* you, I would go. (*not* was)
18. Avoid the use of the wrong verb. (pp. 143, 145, 146, 236, 237)	See sentences for *shall* and *will; lie* and *lay; sit* and *set;* etc.
19. Double negative should not be used. (pp. 140, 162)	He *hasn't* said *anything.* (*not* he hasn't said nothing)
20. Personal pronoun *them* should not be used for pronominal adjective *those.* (pp. 161, 221)	*Those* people are in a hurry.
21. Avoid the wrong form for the comparative or superlative of adjectives. (pp. 154, 161)	It was the *most beautiful* flower there. (*not* beautifulest)
22. Comparative should not be used for superlative (p. 160)	Who is *tallest,* Mary or John or Frank? (*not* taller)

RULE	CORRECT FORM
23. Superlative should not be used for comparative. (p. 160)	Who is the *taller*, you or I? (*not* tallest)
24. Avoid extravagant use of adjectives or adverbs. (p. 161)	The game was *interesting*. (*not* awfully interesting)
25. Avoid the use of an adjective for an adverb. (p. 161)	He writes *well*. (*not* good) I am *very* warm. (*not* real warm)
26. Do not use *here* or *there* as an adjective. (p. 161)	Hand me *that* pole. (*not* that there pole)
27. Place modifiers where there can be no doubt as to the words they are intended to modify. (pp. 243–245)	He came back only yesterday. (*not* he only came)
28. Do not use *like* as a conjunction. (p. 164)	I did *as* he did. It seemed *as if* he would never come.
29. Do not use a wrong part of speech because it sounds like the right one.	You should *have* been there. (*not* should of) *There* was a dog in the road. (*not* they was)

WRITTEN ERRORS

1. Do not punctuate part of a sentence as if it were a whole sentence. (p. 180)
2. Do not run two or more sentences together. (p. 180)
3. Do not use *and*, *then*, and *but* too frequently. (p. 181)
4. Avoid a succession of short, choppy sentences. (p. 181)
5. Put the correct mark—period, exclamation point, or question mark—at the end of a sentence. (pp. 17, 183, 184)
6. Place a period after abbreviations. (p. 183)

Avoid errors in

7. The use of capital letters. (p. 176)
8. The use of the apostrophe. (p. 184)
9. The use of the comma. (pp. 215, 238, 247)
10. The use of the colon. (p. 258)
11. The use of the dash. (p. 259)
12. The use of marks of parenthesis. (p. 259)
13. The punctuation of compound sentences. (p. 225)
14. Writing quotations. (p. 211)
15. The division of a word at the end of a line. (p. 184)

GENERAL REVIEW OF GRAMMAR

(The numbers refer to Lessons)

THE SENTENCE

PARTS

- **Subject** ..... Noun or Pronoun (1, 3, 5); Phrase (26, 29); Clause (39)
- **Predicate** ..... Verb (1, 4)
- **Complements** .....
  - Direct Object: Noun or Pronoun (17); Phrase (26, 29); Clause (39)
  - Attribute: Adjective (18); Noun or Pronoun (18); Phrase (24, 26); Clause (39, 40)
  - Objective: Adjective (20); Noun or Pronoun (20); Phrase (24)
- **Modifiers** .....
  - Adjectives (6, 8)
  - Adverbs (9, 10, 11)
  - Participles (23)
  - Infinitives (26)
  - Nouns and Pronouns (30, 32)
  - Phrases (13, 27, 29)
  - Clauses (34–38)
- **Connectives** .....
  - Conjunctions (16, 77)
  - Pronouns (49, 77)
  - Adverbs (74, 77)
- **Independent Parts** (16, 24, 27, 31, 43, 79)

Classes

- **Meaning** — Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamatory (2)
- **Form** — Simple, Complex, Compound (34, 43)

THE NOUN

NOUN

- **Uses**
  - Subject (3)
  - Direct Object (17)
  - Predicate Noun (18)
  - Objective Complement (20)
  - Adjective Modifier (30)
  - Adverbial Modifier (32)
  - Object of Preposition (14)
  - Independent (31)
- **Classes**
  - Common (3, 48)
  - Proper (3, 48)
  - Collective (48)
  - Abstract (48)
- **Modifications**
  - Number
    - Singular (50)
    - Plural (50)
  - Gender (51)
    - Masculine
    - Feminine
    - Neuter
  - Person (52)
    - First
    - Second
    - Third
  - Case (53, 54, 56)
    - Nominative
    - Possessive
    - Objective

THE PRONOUN

PRONOUN

- **Uses** — Same as those of the noun, and as connective (49, 77)
- **Classes**
  - Personal (49, 55)
  - Compound Personal (55)
  - Relative (49, 55)
  - Compound Relative (55)
  - Interrogative (49, 55)
  - Demonstrative (49)
  - Indefinite (49)
- **Modifications** — Same as those of the noun

THE VERB

- **VERB**
  - **Uses**
    - To assert action, being, or state
      - Predicate (4)
    - To assume action, being, or state
      - Participles (23)
      - Infinitives (25)
      - Gerunds (29)
  - **Classes**
    - Form
      - Regular (59)
      - Irregular (59, 62)
    - Meaning
      - Transitive (59)
      - Intransitive (59)
  - **Modifications**
    - Voice
      - Active (60)
      - Passive (60)
    - Mood
      - Indicative
      - Subjunctive
      - Imperative

      (61–64)
    - Tense
      - Present
      - Past
      - Future
      - Present Perfect
      - Past Perfect
      - Future Perfect

      (61-64)
    - Number
      - Singular
      - Plural

      (61, 63, 64, 66)
    - Person
      - First
      - Second
      - Third

      (61, 63, 64, 66)
  - **Participles** — Tenses
    - Present
    - Past
    - Past Perfect

    (61, 63, 64)
  - **Infinitives** — Tenses
    - Present
    - Present Perfect

    (61, 63, 64)
  - **Gerunds** — Tenses
    - Present
    - Past

    (63, 64)

THE ADJECTIVE

ADJECTIVE

- **Uses** ..... Modifier (6, 8); Predicate Adjective (18); Objective Complement (20)
- **Classes** ..... Descriptive (72); Limiting (72)
- **Modification** ..... Comparison: Positive, Comparative, Superlative (73)

THE ADVERB

ADVERB

- **Uses** ..... Modifiers (9, 10, 11); Connectives (74, 77); Independent (31)
- **Classes** ..... Time, Place, Degree, Manner, Cause, Relative, Interrogative (74)
- **Modification** ..... Comparison: Positive, Comparative, Superlative (75)

THE CONJUNCTION, THE PREPOSITION, AND THE INTERJECTION

CONJUNCTION

- **Uses** (16)
- **Classes**: Coördinating, Subordinating (77)
- **No Modifications**

PREPOSITION

- **Uses** ..... (14, 78)
- **No Classes**
- **No Modifications**

INTERJECTION

- **Uses** ..... (16, 31, 79)
- **No Classes**
- **No Modifications**

TOPICS FOR ORAL AND WRITTEN COMPOSITION

NARRATION

1. S. O. S. (The wireless call for help used by a ship at sea.)
2. A heroic act by a fireman.
3. The treasure I didn't find.
4. A Hallowe'en scare.
5. The history of our house.
6. A Boy-scout expedition.
7. An adventure of a Camp-fire girl.
8. Getting a job for the summer.
9. The old trapper's story.
10. When some one played a joke on me.
11. My unlucky day.
12. The play that won the game.
13. Lost in the forest.
14. My best fish story.
15. The package I found.
16. An anecdote about Washington (or some other famous person).
17. An amusing mishap.
18. My narrow escape.
19. A day at the fair.
20. Following the blazed trail.

DESCRIPTION

21. A corner in a museum.
22. My neighbor's back yard.

23. A description of a fire.
24. The swimming hole.
25. The most attractive schoolroom I know.
26. The ice storm.
27. An old-fashioned garden.
28. An interesting home.
29. Our neighbor's hens.
30. Habits of my dog.
31. Queer pets I have had.
32. Treasures of our attic.
33. A gypsy camp.
34. The picture that I like best.
35. Tramps I have met.
36. An interesting family.
37. The person I liked best in the circus.
38. The toy-shop window.
39. Our playground.
40. A journey in a train.

EXPOSITION

41. How to tie knots.
42. How to make a fire without matches.
43. How to build a fire in the stove.
44. How to care for the furnace.
45. How to set a table.
46. How to cut and store ice.
47. How to send in a fire alarm.
48. How to make out a money order.
49. What every pupil can do to make home pleasanter.
50. How to help keep the streets clean.
51. The duties of an umpire.
52. The habits of the honey bee.
53. A cream separator.

54. A cotton-gin.
55. An aëroplane.
56. A thermometer.
57. A glacier.
58. A volcano.
59. Some piece of machinery.
60. A modern invention.

ARGUMENT

61. Why every one should keep a cash account.
62. Why —— is my favorite sport.
63. Why history (or any other study) is the most useful school study.
64. Why I would rather live in the country than in the city.
65. Does it pay to stay in school until graduation?
66. What I consider the greatest invention.
67. Canoeing versus sailing.
68. What I wish to do when I am grown, and why.
69. Should a boy, or girl, have an allowance?
70. A comparison of two books (or characters, animals, etc.) with reasons for the preference.
71. Should children be told the truth about Santa Claus?
72. Persuade a boy who is unfair in school games to play according to the rules.
73. Persuade a friend to join the Audubon Society.
74. Resolved: that the schools should close on Columbus Day.
75. Resolved: that pupils should buy their own books.
76. Resolved: that a park is needed in our neighborhood.
77. Resolved: that our grade needs more supplementary reading books.
78. Resolved: that every boy or girl should have a high-school education.

79. Resolved: that our school needs a gymnasium.
80. Resolved: that Congress should prohibit the manufacture and sale of alcoholic liquor.

LETTERS

81. Write a letter to a friend, telling him about some books you think he will enjoy.
82. You have sent a baseball to your aunt and a sewing bag to a grammar-school boy. Write to them both, explaining the mistake.
83. A family has moved into town, next door to you. Write to a friend in another town and describe the new neighbors, their phonograph, and their pets.
84. You have been asked to be on a committee, but do not wish to accept. Write a note to the chairman.
85. You have just been to an unusual and jolly party. Write to your cousin who is to give a party soon and has asked for suggestions.
86. Write to a boy who is interested in collecting stamps and tell him how you made your collection.
87. A friend, who is going to live in another state, must take a long journey on the train. Write a letter to amuse him on the trip. Illustrate it.
88. You want your cousin in Duluth to become acquainted with your best friend, who is going there to live. Write so that your cousin will really wish to meet your friend.
89. You are planning to buy a bicycle. Write a letter to a company that manufactures bicycles, describing the kind of bicycle that you want and asking for information as to styles and prices.
90. Write a letter ordering a bicycle. Include in your order several extra parts, such as a bicycle lamp, a carrier for books, and a pump.

ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations, with a few exceptions, are not allowable in ordinary composition, including letters. They are convenient, however, in making lists, in literary references, and in certain technical writing where a term occurs frequently.

Titles preceding names, with the few exceptions found in the following list, should not be abbreviated. A title standing alone should always be spelled in full; as, *Dr.* Brown came, The *doctor* came.

Words expressing quantity should be abbreviated only when they follow a numeral; as, The tile is 2 in. by 3 in., They advanced by inches.

1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, etc. are not followed by the period. Their principal use is in the writing of dates.

The abbreviations for states, territories, and possessions of the United States are those authorized by the government.

The abbreviations for measures are used for both singular and plural, unless otherwise stated. For example, *A.* stands for *acre* and for *acres*, *in.* for *inch* and for *inches*.

STATES, TERRITORIES, AND POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

Ala., Alabama.
Ariz., Arizona.
Ark., Arkansas.
Cal., California.
Colo., Colorado.
Conn., Connecticut.
D. C., Dictrict of Columbia.
Del., Delaware.
Fla., Florida.
Ga., Georgia.
Ill., Illinois.
Ind., Indiana.
Kans., Kansas.
Ky., Kentucky.

La., Louisiana.
Mass., Massachusetts.
Md., Maryland.
Me., Maine.
Mich., Michigan.
Minn., Minnesota.
Miss., Mississippi.
Mo., Missouri.
Mont., Montana.
N. C., North Carolina.
N. Dak., North Dakota.
Nebr., Nebraska.
Nev., Nevada.
N. H., New Hampshire.
N. J., New Jersey.
N. Mex., New Mexico.
N. Y., New York.
Okla., Oklahoma.
Oreg., Oregon.
Pa., Pennsylvania.
P. I., Philippine Islands.
P. R., Porto Rico.
R. I., Rhode Island.
S. C., South Carolina.
S. Dak., South Dakota.
Tenn., Tennessee.
Tex., Texas.
Va., Virginia.
Vt., Vermont.
Wash., Washington.
Wis., Wisconsin.
W. Va., West Virginia.
Wyo., Wyoming.

Alaska, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Ohio, Samoa, and *Utah* should not be abbreviated.

MONTHS OF THE YEAR

Jan., January.
Feb., February.
Mar., March.
Apr., April.
Aug., August.
Sept., September.
Oct., October.
Nov., November.
Dec.. December.

May, June, and *July* should not be abbreviated.

DAYS OF THE WEEK

Sun., Sunday.
Mon., Monday.
Tues., Tuesday.
Wed., Wednesday.
Thurs., Thursday.
Fri., Friday.
Sat., Saturday.

GENERAL ABBREVIATIONS

A., acre.
@, at.
acct. or **a/c**, account.
A.D., (*Anno Domini*) in the year of our Lord.
a.m., (*ante meridiem*) before noon.
amt., amount.
anon., anonymous.
ans., answer.
art., article.
Ave., Avenue.

B.A., Bachelor of Arts.
bbl., barrel.
B.C., before Christ.
B.S., Bachelor of Science.
bu., bushel.

C., centigrade (thermometer).
c., (*circa*) about.
¢ or **ct.**, cent.
C.E., Civil Engineer.
cf., (*confer*) compare.
ch., chapter.
cm., centimeter.
Co., Company, County.
c/o, in care of.
C.O.D., cash on delivery.
Cr., Credit, Creditor.
cu., cubic.
cwt., hundredweight.

d., penny, pence.
D.D., Doctor of Divinity.
doz., dozen.
Dr., Doctor, Debit. Debtor.

e.g., (*exempli gratia*) for example.
Esq., Esquire.
etc., (*et cetera*) and so forth.
ex., example.

F., Fahrenheit (thermometer).
ff., following.
f.o.b., free on board.
fr., franc.
ft., foot.

g. or **gm.**, gram.
gal., gallon.

hdkf., handkerchief.
hhd., hogshead.
Hon., Honorable.
h.p., horse power.
H. R., House of Representatives.
hr., hour.

ib. or **ibid.**, (*ibidem*) in the same place.
id., (*idem*) the same.
i. e., (*id est*) that is.

in., inch.
Inc., Incorporated.
inst., instant, the present month.

J.P., Justice of the Peace.
Jr., Junior.

kg., kilogram.
km., kilometer.

£, pound sterling.
lb., pound.
LL.D., Doctor of Laws.
Ltd., Limited.

M., Monsieur.
m., meter, noon, mark.
M.A., Master of Arts.
M.C., Member of Congress.
M.D., Doctor of Medicine.
mdse., merchandise.
M.E., Mechanical Engineer.
Messrs., Messieurs.
mfg., manufacturing.
mfr., manufacturer.
Mgr., Manager.
mi., mile.
min., minute.
Mlle., Mademoiselle.
mm., millimeter.
Mme., Madame.
mo., month.
Mr., Mister.
Mrs., (pronounced *Mĭs'ĭs* or *Mĭs'ĭz*).
MS., manuscript; **MSS.**, manuscripts.
Mt., Mount or Mountain.

N.B., (*nota bene*) note well.
no., number.

op. cit., (*opere citato*) in the work quoted.
oz., ounce.

p., page; **pp.**, pages.
per cent or %, by the hundred.
Ph.D., Doctor of Philosophy.
pk., peck.
p.m., (*post meridiem*) afternoon.
P. O., Post Office.
pro tem., (*pro tempore*) for the time being.
prox., (*proximo*) the next month.
P.S., Postscript.
pt., pint.

qt., quart.
q.v., (*quod vide*) which see.
qy., query.

Rev., Reverend.
R.R., Railroad.

R.S.V.P., (*Répondez s'il vous plait*) Answer, if you please.
Ry., Railway.

s., shilling.
sec., second, secretary.
Sen., Senator.
sp.gr., specific gravity.
sq., square.
Sr., Senior.
St., Street, Saint.
Supt., Superintendent.

T., ton.

ult., (*ultimo*) last month.
U.S.A., United States of America; United States Army.
U.S.N., United States Navy.

viz., (*videlicet*) to wit, namely.
vol., volume.
vs., (*versus*) against.

yd., yard.
yr., year.

CONTENTS OF LEE'S LESSONS IN ENGLISH, BOOK TWO

ARRANGED TO COMBINE PARTS ONE AND TWO

It frequently happens that the teacher wishes to combine the lessons in Grammar and in Composition in such a way as to divide the work of the days of the school week between the two subjects. To meet this requirement, a combined Table of Contents is here given, arranging the lessons in Part One and Part Two in the form of a complete and unified outline for the year's study.

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